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PREFACE.

THE following pages are laid before the public with the view of supplying beginners in Grammar with information more in accordance with the present state of learning than that which is afforded by the grammars currently in use. Of these, each and all have the same merits and the same defects. In the matter of Syntax they are the least faulty; although even in this department they err, at times, most grievously. Notwithstanding this, the strong sense that characterises the reasoning of Cobbett affords an intellectual exercise, even where the facts upon which it works are wrong; whilst the copiousness of illustration in Lindley Murray has its value as *exercises and in the way of practice*. Here, however, the praise of the usual grammarians ends. What they teach in the way of Etymology, what they exhibit as constituting the structure of language, and what they indicate as the general principles of language, are matters that they supply only for the sake of being unlearned when the researches of the student become extended. No person conversant with modern philology will consider this statement as overcharged.

What the following pages profess to exhibit is referrible to two heads: firstly, the special details of the structure of the English language; secondly, certain facts and reasonings in general grammar. These latter points are

incorporated with the former, for the following reasons. It is not from the grammars either of classical languages, or from those of any foreign tongue, that the first knowledge of the general principles of grammar is best derived; although such is a current, if not an universal opinion. We best learn the theory of a language when we study it independently of the practice. We may see this, by asking whether the meaning of words like Case, Concord, Government, Noun, &c., is best collected from the grammar of a known or an unknown language. In the latter case, the attention is divided between the general principles of grammar, common to all languages, and the special details of the particular language in question. In the former case, the familiarity with the details leaves the attention undivided for the comprehension of general principles. Whatever be the country of the student, the analysis of his native tongue is his best practice in general grammar.

Having indicated the mixed character of my work, I wish to state with what views I would have it judged. There is much in grammar that is indeterminate. Most of the terms are unsettled, and many of the definitions have yet to be agreed upon. Such being the case, an author has a choice between two modes of proceeding. He may either lay down his assertions peremptorily, demanding an acquiescence in his authority; or he may, by full and sufficient trains of reasoning upon each doubtful term, and upon each unrecognised generalisation, exhaust the subject, and convince his reader. To have taken up the former plan, would have been opposite to the purpose of the author, whose intention it was that the character of his book should be *disciplinary*; to

have ventured upon the latter would have extended the work to an indefinite length. Between these two methods, however, there was an intermediate one. In the first place, the present is no independent work, but an elementary form of a fuller and more critical volume; in which volume definitions are fixed, and doubts discussed. In the next place, the pretensions of the book are limited. There are a vast number of questions in respect not only to points of general grammar, but even in respect to special facts in the English language, to which no categorical answer in the present state of philology can be given: to such questions as *How many cases?* *How many parts of speech?* *How many irregular verbs* are there in English? no cautious grammarian would venture an unqualified answer. The reply depends upon the definition of the words *case*, *parts of speech*, and *irregular*; and, in respect to these, it will be long before there is full unanimity. The present book will not enable the student to give offhand answers on doubtful points. It will, however, present him with new and numerous facts, and habituate him to the reasoning upon them.

For what precise age of the student any work of instruction may be designed is in few departments of knowledge easy to be accurately determined. A book addressed to the understanding should be taken up a few years later than one addressed more particularly to the memory. It is considered by the author that the same degree of attention, the same effort of thought, that *understands* the first principles of arithmetic and geometry, will also understand the subject-matter of the present volume. This, it is conceived, recommends the

work in question to the middle and higher, but not to the lower parts of schools.

The amount of preliminary knowledge on other subjects required for the study of the work in question is ascertained more easily. It can be wholly mastered independent of any knowledge either of the classical languages or of logic.

During the perusal of the first part, the student should have before him, and continually refer to, a map of Germany and northern Europe. A sufficient knowledge of the general history is presumed; since it cannot be said, that, in expecting a knowledge of what is meant by such terms as the Norman Conquest, we look for too much on the part of the learner. The words quoted from the Anglo-Saxon should be *written* down, and the parts wherein they differ from the English should be carefully marked by means of *underlining*. The pronunciation is a secondary affair.

In Part II. the assistance of the teacher will be most wanted. The description of a sound is difficult; so that he should be prepared to exhibit the nature of our elementary sounds orally, and to make the pupil repeat after him until his familiarity with the properties of the different sounds become perfect. (See §§ 40, 41, 43.) From Part II. the student may proceed to the Prosody (Part V.), since by so doing he completes his familiarity with points of grammar so essential and elementary as accent and quantity.

Of Part III. the fourteen first sections should be studied slowly and repeatedly, since upon his familiarity with these will depend the clearness of the student's views respecting the nature and number of the parts of

speech, and his appreciation of the rules of Syntax. In the remainder of Part III. free use must be made of the pen, and all foreign words that are quoted in illustration of an English one must, as before, be written down. The sections upon Composition and Derivation (§§ 256—289) may be omitted in the first reading.

Before entering upon the Syntax (Part IV.) the Etymology should be gone through twice, and the sections explanatory of the structure of propositions more than twice.

Such seems to the author the amount of time and attention requisite to obtain clear ideas in general grammar, and a knowledge in detail of the structure of the English language. Upon those points, where the attempt at explanation and illustration is most visible, such time and attention should more especially be bestowed. A few fundamental points familiarly understood serve as key to the rest. What these are, the teacher will collect from the degree to which the exposition of them is extended. Amongst others, it may be necessary to indicate §§ 33, 37, 64, 65, 66, 52, 86—100.

*University College,
July 20th, 1843.*

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION.

§ 1. THE history of the English language, as spoken in England, begins in the year 449 A.D. In that year it began to be introduced into Britain from the continent of Europe. The portion of the continent from which it was introduced was Germany. In that part of Europe it had been spoken from times anterior to history, being the original language of the country. Respecting the English language in its earliest stage two points must be remembered. 1. That it was not the native language of Britain, and must not be called British. 2. That it *was* the native language of Germany; and that it is the languages of ancient Germany in the earliest, and of modern Germany in the present times, to which it is related.

§ 2. By referring to a map of Northern Germany we may mark the districts from which the English language was introduced into Britain; remembering, at the same time, that the date is the year 449 A.D. Beginning with the sea-coast, and starting from the north, at the province of Jutland, on the limits between Germany and

Denmark, we should remark the rivers Eyder, Elbe, Weser, Ems, and Rhine. It was from the line of country between the first and last of these rivers that the English population of Britain was chiefly introduced. Particular notice should also be taken of the following provinces, *viz.* Jutland, Sleswick, Holstein, Friesland, and Westphalia.

§ 3. *First settlement of invaders from Germany.*—In the year 449 A.D. the invaders from Northern Germany made the first permanent settlement in Britain. Ebbsfleet, in the Isle of Thanet, was the spot where they landed; and the particular name that these tribes gave themselves was that of *Jutes*. Their leaders were Hengist and Horsa. Six years after their landing they had established the kingdom of Kent; so that the county of Kent was the first district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Germany.

§ 4. *Second settlement of invaders from Germany.*—In the year 477 A.D. invaders from Northern Germany made the second permanent settlement in Britain. The coast of Sussex was the spot whereon they landed. The particular name that these tribes gave themselves was that of *Saxons*. Their leader was Ella. They established the kingdom of the South Saxons (Sussex); so that the county of Sussex was the second district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 5. *Third settlement of invaders from Germany.*—In the year 495 A.D. invaders from Northern Germany made the third permanent settlement in Britain. The coast of Hampshire was the spot whereon they landed.

Like the invaders last mentioned, these tribes were Saxons. Their leader was Cerdic. They established the kingdom of the West Saxons (Wessex); so that the county of Hants was the third district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 6. *Fourth settlement of invaders from Germany.* — A. D. 530, certain Saxons landed in Essex; so that the county of Essex was the fourth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 7. *Fifth settlement of invaders from Germany.* — These were *Angles* in Norfolk and Suffolk. This settlement, of which the precise date is not known, took place during the reign of Cerdic in Wessex. The fifth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English was the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk; the particular dialect introduced being that of the *Angles*.

§ 8. *Sixth settlement of invaders from Germany.* — In the year 547 A. D. invaders from Northern Germany made the sixth permanent settlement in Britain. The south-western counties of Scotland, between the rivers Tweed and Forth, were the districts where they landed. They were of the tribe of the *Angles*, and their leader was Ida. The south-western parts of Scotland constituted the sixth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

§ 9. A *general* idea of the quarters from whence the invaders from Germany originated has been given in the

preceding sections. The particular district from which each of the three different tribes originated is not known to a certainty. It is most probable that the Angles came from the present Duchy of Sleswick ; the Jutes from the north of the Angles (South Jutland) ; and the Saxons from some point between the Elbe and Rhine. Of the three tribes, however, the language was essentially one and the same, exhibiting for the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes respectively only the variations of dialect.

§ 10. We may now inquire into the *extension* of the language of these German invaders, having learned already upon what parts of the island of Britain it was first *introduced*. As the new language spread, the original language retreated, until eventually the Britons were confined to the principality of Wales ; where they and their language exist at the present moment. The original British was the mother-tongue of the present Welsh.

§ 11. In the county of Kent the original British, as stated in § 3, was superseded by the extension of the dialect of the *Jutes*. Besides those of Kent, there were Jutes in part of Sussex, and in part of the Isle of Wight. The immediate origin of these last is uncertain. Of the three invading tribes the Jutes were the least important.

§ 12. In the county of Sussex the original British was superseded by the extension of the dialect of the *Saxons* under Ella. See § 4.

§ 13. In the following counties it was by the extension of the Saxon introduced by the followers of Cerdic that the original British was supplanted — Hampshire, Dorsetshire, Wilts, part of Somerset, part of Devonshire, part of Surrey, Glostershire, Oxfordshire, Berk-

shire, Buckinghamshire. These counties constituted the important kingdom of the West Saxons (Wessex).

§ 14. It was by the extension of the Saxon introduced by the invaders of A.D. 530 that the original British of Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertfordshire was superseded.

§ 15. It was by the extension of the language introduced by the Angle invaders of Norfolk and Suffolk that the original British of Cambridgeshire, and the Isle of Ely, and of parts of Lincolnshire, and Northamptonshire, was superseded.

§ 16. It was by the extension of the language introduced by the Angles of the south of Scotland that the original British was superseded in the following counties — Northumberland, Westmoreland, Cumberland, Cheshire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, and the North Midland counties.

§ 17. The three districts where the original British lasted longest were—

1. Cumberland; where it was extant in the tenth century.

2. Cornwall; where it was currently spoken in the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

3. Wales; where it exists at the present moment.

§ 18. The death of Ecbert took place in 836 A.D. It is convenient to take the reign of Ecbert as the date of the consolidation of the *Anglo-Saxon* power in England. It is convenient, also, to consider the dialects of the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons as having by this time constituted a single language, *viz.* the *Anglo-Saxon*.

§ 19. The Anglo-Saxon is the mother-tongue of the present English.

§ 20. If the present English of the nineteenth century be compared with the Anglo-Saxon of the ninth, the following points of difference will be observed:—

1. The Anglo-Saxon language contained words that are either wanting in the present English, or, if found, used in a different sense.

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
lyft	<i>air</i>	swithe	<i>very</i>
lichoma	<i>body</i>	sáre	<i>very</i> —
stefn	<i>voice</i>	sith	<i>late</i>
theód	<i>people</i>	reccan	<i>care about</i>
ece	<i>everlasting</i>	ongitan	<i>understand</i>
hwæt	<i>sharp</i>	sweltan	<i>die, &c.</i>

These words, which are very numerous, although lost (or changed as to meaning) in the current English, are often preserved in the provincial dialects.

2. The present English contains words that were either wanting in the Anglo-Saxon, or, if found, used in a different sense—*voice, people, conjugal, philosophy, alchemist, very, survey, shawl*, and other words, to the amount of some hundreds. These have been introduced since the time of the Anglo-Saxons, from the Latin, Greek, French, Arabic, and other languages.

3. Words found in both Anglo-Saxon and English appear in different forms for the different languages.

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
án	<i>one</i>	gærs	<i>grass</i>
eahta	<i>eight</i>	ic	<i>I</i>
nygon	<i>nine</i>	spræc	<i>speech</i>
endlufon	<i>eleven</i>	eáge	<i>eye, &c.</i>

4. The Anglo-Saxon contained grammatical forms that are wanting in the present English.

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
tung-ena	<i>tongues</i>	god-ra	<i>good</i>
word-a	<i>words</i>	wi-t	<i>we two</i>
treow-u	<i>tree-s</i>	gi-t	<i>ye two</i>
sun-a	<i>son-s</i>	hwo-ne	<i>who-m</i>
god-an	<i>good</i>	we luf-iath	<i>we love</i>
god-re	<i>good</i>	we luf-odon	<i>we loved</i>
god-ne	<i>good</i>	to luf-ianne	<i>to love</i>
god-es	<i>good</i>		

5. The present English contains grammatical forms that were wanting in Anglo-Saxon. The words *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, *hers*, were unknown in Anglo-Saxon.

6. Grammatical forms found both in the Anglo-Saxon and the English appear with different forms in the different languages. .

A. S.	English.	A. S.	English.
smith-es	<i>smith's</i>	hvá-m	<i>who-m</i>
smith-as	<i>smith-s</i>	blets-ode	<i>bless-ed, &c.</i>
hir-e	<i>her</i>		

7. Phrases and sentences were used in Anglo-Saxon which are inadmissible in the present English.

8. Phrases and sentences are used in the modern English which were inadmissible in Anglo-Saxon.

§ 21. The first great change was effected in the Anglo-Saxon in the year 1066 A.D. In this year the Norman Conquest took place. The effect of this was to introduce a vast number of French words into the language of England: so that the original Anglo-Saxon

became mixed and irregular. By the year 1150 a considerable change had been effected in the A. S.

§ 22. *Semi-Saxon Stage*.—From about 1150 A.D. to 1250, the language is called Semi-Saxon, or *half-Saxon*, being intermediate to the early English, and the Anglo-Saxon anterior to the Conquest.

§ 23. *Old English Stage*.—The language from the time of Henry III. to Richard II. is called Old English. It agrees with the Anglo-Saxon more than with the present English.

§ 24. *Middle English*.—From the reign of Richard II. to that of Queen Elizabeth the language is called Middle English. It differs in many points from the present English, but more from the Semi-Saxon and Anglo-Saxon.

§ 25. *Modern (or New) English*.—To an Englishman of the present day the language under James I., and of the writers of the *later* part of Queen Elizabeth's reign, although presenting several peculiarities, is sufficiently like the English of the present day to be easily understood. This we may prove by referring to the works of Shakspeare, Ben Jonson, or any of the writers of the time in point. This is the period of the Modern (or New) English.

§ 26. What has just preceded is an exhibition of the *stages* of the English language; through which it passed between the period of the Anglo-Saxons and the present day. Beyond this, it is necessary to be informed concerning certain languages of Germany, and the North of Europe, to which the Anglo-Saxon, the mother-tongue of the present English, was allied.

§ 27. *Old Saxon*. — The language spoken in the

present province of Westphalia, and in the districts about Cleves, Essen, and Munster was closely akin to the Anglo-Saxon. This language is called the Old Saxon.

§ 28. *Old Frisian*.—This was the language of the present province of Friesland, and of the parts north and south of that district. The Old Frisian is closely allied to the Anglo-Saxon, and stands in the same relation to the modern Dutch, spoken in Holland, as the Anglo-Saxon does to the English.

§ 29. *Old High German*.—By tracing towards their sources the rivers Rhine, Mayne, and Neckar, we come to the tracts of country over which another language akin to the Anglo-Saxon was spoken, viz., Bavaria, Alsatia, parts of Lorraine, and of Switzerland, Suabia, and Franconia. This language is the mother-tongue of the present German. Constance, Strasburg, St. Gall, Worms, Spire, Mentz, Wirtzburg, and Fulda may be noted as cities where the Old High German was especially cultivated.

§ 30. *Mæso-Gothic*.—By following the course of the Danube we reach the Roman province of Mæsia. The *earliest* inhabitants of this province were not akin to any of the tribes of Germany, either Frisian, Angle, Saxon, or German, any more than the original Britons of England were akin to the Anglo-Saxon invaders. However, in the second century of the Christian æra, the province of Mæsia was possessed by tribes from the north-eastern parts of Germany. These were called Goths, or, more specifically, the Goths of Mæsia. Their language is called Mæso-Gothic.

The earliest written works that occur either in the

Anglo-Saxon or the languages allied to it are Mæso-Gothic. Parts of a translation of the Gospels written by a Mæso-Gothic bishop of the name of Ulphilas in the third century are still extant, and are of great importance in illustrating the Anglo-Saxon and the allied languages.

§ 31. *Old Norse*.—Languages akin to the Anglo-Saxon were spoken not only over Germany, but also over Denmark, over Sweden, over Norway and over the distant island, Iceland. The languages of these countries when spoken of collectively, and in their earliest stage, were called the Old Norse. By Old Norse (or Northern) is meant the mother-tongue of the present Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic, and also of the language of the Feroe Isles.

§ 32. Such are the languages from which the modern languages of Germany, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Iceland, are descended, just as the English is descended from the Anglo-Saxon. As these languages were akin to the Anglo-Saxon, so are the modern languages derived from them akin to the English.

In this manner the languages just mentioned, both ancient and modern, constitute what is called one great *stock* of languages, which stock is named the Gothic stock, from the circumstance of its being the Gothic tribes of Germany that were first known to the civilized world.

PART II.

THE SOUNDS, LETTERS, AND ACCENTS.

§ 33. THE simple elementary sounds in the present English are as follows :

1. The sound of the letter *a* in *ah, father, &c.*
2. The sound of the letter *a* in *fate, bate, ale, pale, bait, ail, snake, snail, &c.*
3. The sound of the letter *a* in *fat, pat, bat, that, hat, patting, &c.* All these three sounds are varieties of one and the same original sound. They are generally expressed in spelling by the letter *a*.
4. The sound of the *e* in *bed, beck, less, net, netting, &c.* This is a short quick sound. It is generally expressed by the letter *e*.
5. The sound of the *e* in *feet, need, seed, seek, leak, seat, beat, &c.* This sound is often considered as allied to the preceding one, and as being merely a lengthened variety of it. It is the opinion of the best writers on the subject that it is the lengthened form of the vowel sound next about to be mentioned.
6. The sound of the *i* in *tin, pity, pitted, stick, kick, &c.* This sound is often considered as allied to the sound of *i* in *pine, shine, &c.*, and as being merely a shortened variety of it. It is, however, the opinion of the best writers on the subject that it is a shortened form of the sound of *e* in *feet*, rather than of

the *i* in *pine*. This is the view taken of the sound in point in all languages except the English.

7. The sound of the *oo* in *cool*, and of the *o* in *move*, *prove*.

8. The sound of the *u* in *bull*, *full*, *pull*, &c. Although these two last-mentioned sounds are expressed in spelling by different letters, (the one by *u*, and the other by *o*,) they are evidently allied in utterance. They are both varieties of one and the same sound, pronounced rapidly in the one case, and slowly in the other. The two sounds bear the same relation to each other as the *a* in *fate* bears to the *a* in *fat*, and the *ee* in *feet* to the *i* in *fit*.

9. The sound of the *aw* in *bawl*, of the *au* in *haul*, and of the *a* in *hall*, *all*, *talk*, &c. This sound is generally expressed by the letter *a*, either alone, as in *all* and *ball*, or combined with some other letter, as in *haul* and *bawl*. This mode of expression is faulty, and conceals the true nature of the sound. Its real relation is to the two sounds that will next be mentioned, to which it stands in the same relation that the *a* in *father* does to the *a* in *fate* and the *a* in *fat*.

10. The sound of the *o* in *note*, *boat*, *float*, *no*, *so*, &c.

11. The sound of the *o* in *not*, *knot*, *knotty*, &c.

12. The sound of the *u* in *but*, *nut*, &c. It is doubtful how far this sound is a separate and independent sound, or how far it is a variety of the *oo* in *cool*, and the *u* in *pull*.

The sounds hitherto named are called vowel sounds, or vowels.

13. The sound of the letter *w*, in *wo*, *will*. This sound is evidently allied to the sound of the *oo* in *cool* (7).

Some writers consider it identical, and assert that the words *will* and *oo-il* are sounded alike. It is, however, convenient to consider the *w* in *will* as a separate independent sound.

14. The sound of the letter *y* in *ye, yes, yet*. This sound is evidently allied to the sound of the *ee* in *feet* (5). Some writers consider it identical, and assert that the words *yet* and *ee-et* are sounded alike. It is, however, convenient to consider the *y* in *yet* as a separate independent sound.

15. The sound of the letter *p* in *pin, pip, &c.*

16. The sound of the letter *b* in *bin, bit, &c.*

17. The sound of the letter *f* in *fin, fit, &c.*

18. The sound of the letter *v* in *van, vane, &c.*

19. The sound of the letter *t* in *tin, tip, teal, neat, &c.*

20. The sound of the letter *d* in *din, dip, deal, need, &c.*

21. The sound of the letters *th* in *thin, thick, through, cloth, moth, &c.* It is here necessary to remark the difference that exists between the speaking and the spelling. The sound of the *th* in *thin* is a simple single elementary sound; and, as such, should be expressed by a simple single elementary letter. Instead of this, it is expressed by two letters or by a combination; so that, although a simple sound to the ear, it has the appearance of being a compound one to the eye. It is above all things necessary to remember that the real sound of *h* preceded by *t* is very different from that of the *th* in *thin*, and that the real sound of the *th* in *thin* is very different from that of *h* preceded by *t*. More upon this matter will appear in the sequel.

22. The sound of the letters *th* in *thine*, *them*, *then*, *clothe*. Respecting this sound the reader's attention is called to two points.

1st, That, like the sound last-mentioned, it is a simple single elementary sound, expressed, not by a simple single elementary sign, or letter, but by two letters, or a combination.

2nd, That, although different from the sound last-mentioned (21), it is expressed in spelling precisely in the same way.

The *th* in *thin* is allied to the sound of *t*, as in *tin*.

The *th* in *thine* is allied to the sound of *d*, as in *dine*.

23. The sound of the letter *k*, as in *kill*, *keep*, *oak*, &c.

24. The sound of the letter *g*, as in *go*, *gun*, *log*, *egg*, &c.

25. The sound of the letter *s*, as in *sin*, *seal*, *yes*, &c.

26. The sound of the letter *z*, as in *zeal*, *buzz*, *blaze*, &c.

27. The sound of the letters *sh*, as in *shy*, *shine*, *short*, *ash*, *bush*, &c. This sound is in the same predicament as sounds 21 and 22. It is a single simple elementary sound, expressed, not by a single simple elementary sign, or letter, but by two letters, or a combination. The real sound of *h* preceded by *s* is very different from that of the *sh* in *shine*; and the real sound of the *sh* in *shine* is very different from that of *h* preceded by *s*.

28. The sound of the letter *z* in *azure*. Although without a corresponding sign, or letter, this sound is single, simple, and elementary. Its real nature, however, is disguised by the various and incorrect methods by which it is represented in writing. The sounds of the *z*

in *azure*, the *z* in *glazier*, and the *s* in *pleasure* are identical. This sound is related to the *sh* in *shine*, as the *th* in *thin* is related to the *th* in *thine*. Moreover, the *sh* in *shine* and the *z* in *azure* are related to the usual sounds of *s* and *z* respectively, just as the *th* in *thin* and the *th* in *thine* are respectively related to *t* and *d*.

The sounds from 15 to 28 inclusive are called mute sounds, or mutes.

29. The sound of the letters *ng*, as in *king*, *sing*, *ring*. This sound is in the same predicament with sounds 21, 22, and 27. It is a simple single elementary sound, expressed, not by a simple single elementary sign, or letter, but by two letters, or a combination. The real sound of *g* preceded by *n* is very different from that of the *ng* in *king*, and the real sound of the *ng* in *king* is very different from that of *g* preceded by *n*.

The sound of the *ng*, in *king*, is allied to the sounds of *n* and *g*. It differs, however, from the sounds of both of those letters, either separate or taken together.

The place of the sound of the *ng* in *king* is undetermined. It is not yet fixed whether it is a mute, or whether it belong to some other division of the elementary sounds.

30. The sound of the letter *h*, as in *hot*, *hear*, *hop*, *ho*, &c. The place of the sound is undetermined. By certain grammarians it is excluded from the list of the elementary sounds constituting language. It consists of a simple breathing.

31. The sound of the letter *l* in *leg*, *kill*, &c.

32. The sound of the letter *m* in *mat*, *cram*, &c.

33. The sound of the letter *n* in *net*, *none*, &c.

34. The sound of the letter *r* in *row*, *bear*, &c.

These four last-mentioned sounds are called liquids. The mutes, liquids, *ng*, and *h*, taken together, are called consonants.

. Here ends the list of the simple single elementary sounds in the English language.

§ 34. But, besides these, there are six compound sounds.

Of these, four are compounded by means of a vowel, and two by means of a consonant:

§ 35. The compound sounds formed by vowels fall into two divisions.

§ 36. Compounds formed by means of a vowel and the semi-vowel *ə*. These are two in number.

1. The sound of the letters *ou*, in *house*, *mouse*, &c. The nature of this compound is disguised by the spelling. It consists of the sounds of the *a* in *father*, and the *ə* in *will*, rapidly pronounced.

2. The sound of the letters *ew* in *new*, and also of the single letter *u* (when sounded *ew*) in *muse*, *tune*, &c. The nature of this compound is disguised by the spelling. It consists of the sounds of the *i* in *pit*, and the *ə* in *will*, rapidly pronounced. When represented by means of the single letter *u*, the spelling gives the erroneous notion of its being a single simple elementary sound.

§ 37. Compounds formed by means of a vowel and the semi-vowel *y*. These, also, are two in number.

1. The sound of the letter *i* in *pine*, *fine*, *find*, *mind*. The nature of this compound is disguised by the spelling. As it is represented by means of the single letter *i*, the erroneous notion is engendered of its being a simple single elementary sound ; and also of its being the sound

of the *i* in *pit*, lengthened in the pronunciation. Both these views are wrong. The real elements of the sound in question are generally considered to be the *a* in *fat*, and the *y* in *yet*, rapidly pronounced.

2. The sound of the letters *oi* in *voice*, *noise*. The nature of this compound is sufficiently represented by the spelling. Its real elements are the *aw* in *bawel*, (a variety of the sound of *o* in *note*,) and the *y* in *yet*.

§ 38. The compound sounds formed by the union of a vowel and a semi-vowel are called diphthongs.

§ 39. The compound sounds formed by the union of two consonants are two in number.

1. The sound of the letters *ch* in *chest*. This is really the sound of *teh* rapidly pronounced.

2. The sound of the letter *j* in *jest*. This is really the sound of *dzh* rapidly pronounced. The letter *g*, as in *gibbet*, also represents this sound.

§ 40. The sounds that constitute language are formed by means of the breath passing through the throat and mouth, and being acted upon during its passage by the tongue, teeth, or lips.

When the passage of the air is either free, or only partially closed, the stream of air passes without interruption, and so forms the sounds which were called vowel sounds. The twelve first simple elementary sounds were vowels. The sounds of *a*, *e*, or *o* can all be pronounced with the mouth partially open, and with the breath in an uninterrupted stream.

§ 41. The simple elementary sounds called consonants have the following peculiarity. They are unable to form even the shortest word or syllable without the aid of a vowel. Thus, the vowels *a* or *o* are capable of

being used as syllables, and so are the combinations *ba* or *bo*. But the single sounds of *b'* or *t'*, if taken by themselves, cannot form a word, or even a syllable. In order to do so, they must be joined to a vowel, and *sounded along with it*. For this reason they are called consonants, from the Latin words *con* (*with*) and *sonans* (*sounding*); whilst the word, vowel, is derived from the Latin word *vocalis* (*vocal*), because they can be sounded, or can form voice, by themselves.

§ 42. Of the six compound sounds, the four first were called diphthongs, from the Greek words *dis* (*double*), and *phthongæ* (*a voice*).

§ 43. The points respecting the nature of the elementary sounds which it is most important, in English grammar, to be familiar with, is the difference between the sounds that are called sharp, and the sounds that are called flat. This is of especial importance in dealing with the mutes.

In order to understand this difference, it is necessary to take some mute consonants (*p, b, f, v, t, d, th, k, g, s, z, sh, zh*), and to pronounce them as independently of any vowel as it is possible to do. We must try to give a sound to such single consonants as *p', t', &c.* In attempting this, we shall succeed in making an imperfect sound.

Now, if the mute consonant so taken and uttered be one of the following, *p, f, t, th* (as in *thin*), *k, s*, or *sh*, the sound will be that of a whisper. The sound of *p', t'*, (such as it is,) is that of a man speaking under the natural pitch of his voice, and at a whisper.

But if the mute consonant so taken and uttered be either *b, v, d, th* (as in *thine*), *g, z*, or *zh*, the sound will

be that of a man speaking at the natural pitch of his voice, and with a certain degree of loudness and clearness. This difference in the nature of the mute is highly important to be familiar with. Those that are sounded like *p'* and *f'*, &c., are called the sharp mutes. Those that are sounded like *b'* and *v'*, &c., are called the flat mutes.

Sharp.				Flat.			
p	.	.	f	b	.	.	v
t	.	.	th ¹	d	.	.	th ²
k	.	.		g ³	.	.	
s	.	.	sh	z	.	.	z ⁴

§ 44. When two or more mutes of different degrees of sharpness or flatness come together in the same syllable, they form a combination of sounds that is incapable of being pronounced. This may be understood by practising a few combinations according to the following table. The sharp mutes are arranged on the left, the flat ones on the right side of the line.

Sharp.				Flat.			
p	.	.	f	b	.	.	v
t	.	.	th ⁵	d	.	.	th ⁶
k	.	.		g	.	.	
s	.	.	sh	z	.	.	z ⁷

Now, taking whatever letter we may from the one side of the line, and joining it, in the same syllable, with any

¹ As in *thin*.

² As in *thine*.

³ As in *gun*.

⁴ As in *azure*.

⁵ As in *thin*.

⁶ As in *thine*.

⁷ As in *azure*.

letter whatever from the other side of the line, we find the combination unpronounceable.

<i>abt,</i>	<i>avt,</i>	<i>abth,</i>	<i>avth.</i>
<i>agt,</i>	<i>agp,</i>	<i>agf,</i>	<i>ags.</i>
<i>apd,</i>	<i>afb,</i>	<i>apv,</i>	<i>afid.</i>
<i>atb,</i>	<i>akd,</i>	<i>akz,</i>	<i>akb.</i>
<i>asd,</i>	<i>ashd,</i>	<i>asg,</i>	<i>ashg, &c. &c.</i>

Of course, combinations of this sort can be written, and they can be spelt (indeed in the English, as written combinations, they occur very frequently, *e. g. stags, lads, &c. &c.*): they cannot, however, be pronounced, each sound remaining unchanged.

In order to become pronounced, a change must occur ; one of the sounds changes its character, and so accommodates itself to the other. This change takes place in one of two ways ; either the first of the two sounds takes the degree of sharpness or flatness of the second, or else the second takes the degree of sharpness or flatness of the first : for instance, *abt* becomes pronounceable either by *b* becoming *p*, or by *t* passing into *d* ; in other words, it changes either to *apt* or to *abd*. So on with the rest.

<i>avt</i> becomes either <i>aft,</i> or <i>avd.</i>			
<i>abth</i>	„	„	<i>apth,</i> or <i>abdh.</i>
<i>agt</i>	„	„	<i>akt,</i> or <i>agd.</i>
<i>ags</i>	„	„	<i>aks,</i> or <i>agz.</i>
<i>apd</i>	„	„	<i>apt,</i> or <i>abd.</i>
<i>asd</i>	„	„	<i>ast,</i> or <i>azd.</i>
<i>ashd</i>	„	„	<i>asht,</i> or <i>azhd.</i>
<i>asg</i>	„	„	<i>ask,</i> or <i>azg.</i>

This change is necessary and universal. It holds good not for the English alone, but for all languages. The only difference is that different languages change different letters; that is, one accommodates the first letter to the second, and so turns *agt* into *akt*; the other accommodates the second letter to the first, changing *agt* into *agd*.

There is no fact that requires to be more familiarly known than this. There are at least three formations in the English language where its influence is most important. These are *a*) the possessive forms in *-s*, *b*) the plurals in *-s*, *c*) thirdly, the preterites in *-d* and *-t*.

Neither are there many facts in language more disguised than this is disguised in English. The *s* in the word *stags* is sharp; the *g* in the word *stags* is flat. Notwithstanding this, the combination *ags* exists. It exists, however, in the spelling only. In speaking, the *s* is sounded as *z*, and the word *stags* is pronounced *stagz*. Again, in words like *tossed*, *plucked*, *looked*, the *e* is omitted in pronunciation. Hence the words become *tossd*, *pluckd*, *lookd*; that is, the flat *d* comes in contact with the sharp *k* and *s*. Now, the combination exists in the spelling only, since the preterite of *pluck*, *look*, and *toss*, are, in *speech*, pronounced *pluckt*, *lookt*, *tosst*.

For the sake of fixing the attention of the reader on the point, I will indicate in this place the reason for the difference between the spelling and the pronunciation, which has just been alluded to. This is as follows: For the possessive case singular, for the nominative plural, and for the preterite tense of verbs, the forms in Anglo-Saxon were fuller than they are in the present English. The possessive singular ended not in *-s* only, but in *-es*;

and the nominative plural in *-as*. Similarly the preterite of the verbs ended either in *-od*, or *-ed*, not in *-d* only. *E.g.* *wordes*=*of a word (word's)*, *flódes*=*of a flood (flood's)*, *landes*=*of a land (or land's)*, *thinges*=*of a thing (or thing's)*, *endas* = *ends*, and so on throughout the language. In this case the vowel separated the two consonants, and kept them from coming together. As long as this vowel kept its place, the consonants remained unchanged, their different degrees of sharpness and flatness being a matter of indifference. When the vowel, however, was dropped, the consonants came in contact. This reduced a change on one side or the other to a matter of necessity.

§ 45. Next to knowing that two mutes of different degrees of sharpness or flatness cannot come together in the same syllable, it is important to know that two identical letters cannot come together in the same syllable.

In illustration of this, we may take a word ending in *p*, *t*, or *s*, and try to add a second *p*, *t*, or *s* to the first one; *e. g.* *tap*, *bat*, *mis*. To add a second *p* to *tap*, a second *t* to *bat*, or a second *s* to *mis*, is impracticable. At the first glance this statement seems untrue. Nothing, apparently, is commoner than words like *tapp*, *batt*, *miss*. However, like the combinations indicated above, these are, in reality, combinations in spelling only; they have no existence in pronunciation. We have only to attempt to pronounce *bat't*, *sap'p*, &c. &c., to prove this.

§ 46. Hitherto we have been concerned with the elementary sounds of the English language, and with certain peculiarities of certain combinations. In considering these matters, it might have been observed by the reader incidentally that the pronunciation and the spell-

ing did not always coincide. This was the case with (amongst others) the word *stags*, which is pronounced as if the last letter was *z* (*stagz*). This fact of the difference between the pronunciation and spelling must be borne in mind ; since many words that are sounded alike are spelt differently, and many words that are sounded differently are spelt alike. This leads us to the consideration of the letters and the alphabet. It is necessary to bear in mind that a letter is not a sound itself, but only the sign of a sound.

§ 47. As exhibited in § 33, the number of the simple elementary sounds in English is thirty-four. Of these, however, some may be considered, not as original and separate sounds, but as mere varieties of some other sound ; *e. g.*

The three sounds of *a*, as in *father*, *fate*, and *fat*, may be considered as varieties of one and the same sound. See § 33.

The sounds of *i* in *pit*, and of *ee* in *feet*, may be considered as varieties of one and the same sound : or, if this view be not adopted, the *ee* in *feet* may be considered as a variety of the *e* in *bed*. See § 33.

The sounds of *u* in *bull*, and *oo* in *cool*, may be considered as varieties of one and the same sound. See § 33.

The sounds of the *aw* in *barrel*, and of the *o* in *note* and *not*, may be considered as varieties of one and the same sound. See § 33.

These views would reduce the number of elementary sounds in English from thirty-four to twenty-eight.

To express these twenty-eight sounds in writing, there are, in English, the following twenty-six letters : *a e i o*

u w y p b f v t d k g s z h l m n r j c q x. It is, therefore, easy to see that there are in English more sounds to be expressed in writing than there are letters to express them by.

From these twenty-six letters, however, we must subtract the following :

1. The letter *j*, as in *jest*: since it is not one of the twenty-eight simple elementary sounds that this letter is the sign of. The subtraction of the letter *j* reduces the number of letters expressive of the simple sounds to twenty-five.

2. The letter *c*; since it expresses only what is as well expressed by either *s* or *k*. The words *city* and *can* are pronounced *sity* and *kan* respectively. The subtraction of the letter *c* reduces the number of letters expressive of the simple sounds to twenty-four.

3. The letters *q*, and *x*; since *q* is only *kʷ* (or *cʷ*), and *x* is only *ks* (or *cs*). The words *queen* and *box* are pronounced *cween* (or *kween*), and *boks* (or *bocks*, or *bocs*), respectively. The subtraction of the letters *q* and *x* reduces the number of letters to twenty-two.

§ 48. We have now seen that for twenty-eight simple elementary sounds there are twenty-two simple elementary letters; consequently, six of the simple elementary sounds have no sign or letter corresponding to them. These six sounds are,

1. The *u* in *but*. This is expressed by the letter *u*, the proper business of which letter is to express the vowel sound in words like *bull*, one very different from the one in question.

2. The *th* in *thin*. This is a simple sound, and by no means accurately expressed by the combination *th*.

In the Greek alphabet, where this sound occurs it is expressed by a simple sign, the letter θ . The same was the case in Anglo-Saxon, where the letter $\þ$ was similarly used. The loss of the Anglo-Saxon $\þ$, a simple sign for a simple sound, is to be regretted.

3. The *th* in *thine*. For this simple single sound the Anglo-Saxons had also a simple single sign ($\ð$); the loss of which in the present English is much to be regretted.

4. The sound of the *sh* in *shine*. This is a simple single sound without a sign equally simple and single to express it.

5. The sound of the *z* in *azure*. This is a simple single sound without a sign equally simple and single to express it.

6. The sound of the *ng* in *king*. This is a simple single sound without a sign equally simple and single to express it.

§ 49. In § 47 the letters of the English language are arranged in a natural order: that is, the Vowels come first, then the Mutes, then the Aspirate *h*, fourthly the liquids (*l, m, n, r*), and, finally, the double letter *j*, with the redundant signs *c, q, and x*. Besides this, the Mutes that were most akin were placed next each other: thus *p* and *b*, *t* and *d*, came in order; and so on throughout. Thus the arrangement of the letters, as exhibited in § 47, was a natural arrangement; at least, it was a natural arrangement up to a certain point.

§ 50. *The Alphabet*.—The order of the letters in English Grammar is *not* the natural order. It is well known to be as follows: *a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z*. This arrangement of the English letters is called the *Alphabet*. In the Greek language the name

of the first letter (or *a*) is *Alpha*, and of the second (or *b*) *Beta*. From these two words, the names of the two first letters, the word Alphabet is derived.

§ 51. In respect to its merits or demerits the English alphabet is

1. *Redundant*. It contains three superfluous letters, viz. *c*, *q*, and *x*.

2. *Deficient*. It wants signs for the six sounds mentioned in § 48.

3. *Inconsistent*. It expresses the double sound of the first letter in *jest* (*dzh*) by a single sign, and the single ones of the first letters in *thin*, *thine*, and *shine* by two signs (*th* and *sh*).

There are other faults in the English alphabet and the English method of spelling, which it is not necessary here to enlarge upon. For many of these a sufficient reason can be exhibited.

§ 52. *Accent*.—Next to the consideration of the elementary sounds, and of the letters that represent them, comes that of Accent. The nature of accent we may exhibit by the word *tyrant*.

In this word there is an emphasis, a stress, or a raising of the voice on the first syllable; that is, on the syllable *ty*. If we chose to express the fact in writing, we might invent a mark of some sort, and place it over or under the syllable *ty*. We might write *týrant*, or *tjrant*, &c., &c. This raising of the voice, this stress, or this emphasis is called accent. Compared with the syllable *rant*, the syllable *ty* is accented: in other words, the word *týrant* is accented on the first syllable.

The word *týranny* is in the same predicament. The syllable that is accented is the first.

The word *tyránnical* is in a different predicament. The syllable accented is the second.

The following is a sample of words accented on the first syllable, — *áncor, árgue, hásten, fáther, fóxes, snúting, húsbánd, márkét, vápour, bárefoot, &c.*

Contrasted with these are the words that will next be introduced, — *brigáde, preténce, harpoón, reliève, detér, assúme, besóught, beréft, befóre, abroád, abóde, abstrúse, &c., &c.*—Herein the accent is on the last syllable.

The ear should be familiar with the differences of accent in different words. The best practice in this matter is to do as follows, *viz.* to take a word accented on the first syllable, and to change the place of the accent, by removing it to the second, and *vice versá* ; *e.g.* to pronounce *tyrant* as if it were *tyránt*, *market* as it were *markét*, *detér* as if it were *déter*. This transposition of the accent shews at once the effect that accent has upon the sound of words.

The words quoted above, with their accents transposed, were fictitious specimens. There are in English no such words as *tyránt, markét, déter*. There are, however, in English real specimens of this transposition of the accent. They play an important part in the grammar of the language ; since it is a fact in English that one and the same word may sometimes take its accent on the first, and sometimes on the second syllable, this change of accent being accompanied by a change of meaning. We say, I am in a state of *tórmént* ; but we do not say, *These things tórmént me*. We say, *These things tormént me* ; but we do not say, *I am in a state of tormént*. The reason of this difference is, that the word *tormént* when used as a noun takes its accent on the first syllable, when used as a verb on the last.

For the sake of accustoming the ear to the nature of accent, the following list of words is subjoined. It consists of words identical in everything but the accent. In those of the first column the accent is on the first, in those of the second column on the second syllable. The words in the first column are Nouns (*an absent man*). The words in the second column are Verbs (*I absent myself*).

ábsent	absént	éxtract	extráct
ábstract	abstráct	férment	fermént
áccent	accént	fréquent	frequént
áffix	affix	ímport	impórt
aúgment	augmént	íncense	incénse
cólleague	colleágue	ínsult	insúlt
cómpact	compáct	óbject	objéct
cómpound	compóund	pérfume	perfúme
cómpress	compréss	pérmit	permit
cóncert	concért	préfix	prefix
cóncrete	concréte	prémise	premise
cónduct	condúct	présage	preságe
cónfine	confíne	présent	présént
cónflict	conflićt	próduce	prodúce
cónserve	consérve	próject	projéct
cónsort	consórt	prótest	protést
cóntact	contráct	rébel	rebél
cóntast	contrást	récord	recórd
cónverse	convérese	réfuse	refúse
cónvert	convért	súbject	subjéct
désert	desért	súrvey	survéy
déscant	descánt	tórmént	tormént
éssay	essáy	tránsfer	transfér
éxport	expórt	tránsport	transpórt

The next question is the proportion that the accented and unaccented syllables bear to each other. In *hásten* and *detér* each word consisted of two syllables, of which one was accented, and the other was not. The proportion, therefore, of the unaccented syllable to the accented was as one to one. In *týranny* the case was different. The unaccented syllables were as two to one. What follows is a classification of words according to the proportion of their accented and unaccented syllables; and the divisions are again subdivided according to the place of the accent.

I. Words where the unaccented syllables are to the accented syllables as one to one :

a. The accent on the first syllable,—*áncor, árgue, hásten, týrant, foólish, lóver, stánding, wórship, liar, beádle, &c.*

b. The accent on the second syllable,—*harpoón, bri-gáde, beseéch, detér, belíeve, assúme, invént, relý, refúse, attain, &c.*

II. Words where the unaccented syllables are to the accented syllables as two to one :

a. The accent on the first syllable,—*fórtify, mérrily, cheérily, pítiful, déstitute.*

b. The accent on the second syllable,—*disáble, repél-ling, endeáavour, replénish, &c.*

c. The accent on the third syllable,—*cavaliér, disem-bógue, &c.*

§ 53. *Syllables*.—Take any word in the English, such as *he, man, over, under*. If we examine this, we shall find that it consists of a certain number of sounds, which sounds are more or less perfectly expressed by letters. Thus the word *man* consists of three sounds; the first

that of a consonant, the second that of a vowel, and the third that of a consonant again. The first of these is represented by the letter *m*, the second by the letter *a*, the third by the letter *n*. The three sounds *taken together* form the word *man*, as it is heard in the spoken language. The three letters (*m*, *a*, and *n*) being taken together form the word *man*, as it is read in the written language. In this word a certain number of sounds are taken together, and by that means there is constituted what the grammarians call a syllable. The word syllable is derived from the Greek words *syn* (*with*) and *labein* (*to take*). The word *man* is not only a syllable, but a word also ; which shews that words may consist of a single syllable.

Words consisting of single syllables are called *monosyllables*, from the Greek word *monos* (*alone*),—*man*, *he*, *she*, *child*, &c.

Words consisting of two syllables are called *dissyllables*, from the Greek word *dis* (*twice*),—*over*, *under*, *about*, *father*, *mother*, &c.

Words consisting of three syllables are called *trisyllables*, from the Greek word *treis* (*three*),—*disable*, *fatherless*, *repining*, *sorcerer*, &c.

Words consisting of more than three syllables are called *polysyllables*, from the Greek word *polys* (*many*),—*architecture*, *incapacity*, *fermentation*, &c.

§ 54. *Quantity*.—By comparing the sound of the letter *a* in *fate* with that of the *a* in *fat*, we perceive two things, a likeness and a difference. The likeness consists in both sounds having the character of *a* ; the difference consists in the unequal length of the two sounds. In *fate* the vowel is pronounced slowly, so that the time

taken up in the utterance is, comparatively speaking, Long. In *fat* the vowel is pronounced less slowly, so that the time taken up in the utterance is, comparatively speaking, Short. Hence the *a* in *fate* (and the vowel sounds like it) are called Long Vowels; and the *a* in *fat* (and vowels like it) are called Short Vowels.

§ 55. *Quantity of Vowels*.—The following table exhibits the quantity of the vowels in English. All the diphthongs (§§ 42. 36. 37.) are long.

Long Vowels.	Short Vowels.
<i>a</i> in <i>father</i>	<i>a</i> in <i>fat</i>
<i>e</i> in <i>fate</i>	<i>i</i> in <i>pit</i>
<i>ee</i> in <i>feet</i>	<i>u</i> in <i>bull</i>
<i>oo</i> in <i>cool</i>	<i>o</i> in <i>not</i>
<i>aw</i> in <i>baŵl</i>	<i>u</i> in <i>but</i>
<i>o</i> in <i>note</i>	
<i>.</i> <i>.</i> <i>.</i> <i>.</i>	

Between the words on the two sides of the column above, the difference as to longness and shortness is extreme. Intermediate to these there are certain sounds like the *u* in *monument*, (which is sounded neither as *monooment* nor *monumment*,) but which need not in this place be enlarged upon.

The difference between long and short sounds is expressed by the marks $\bar{\hspace{.1em}}$ and $\acute{\hspace{.1em}}$. The former is placed above Long, and the latter above Short sounds.

Long sounds.	Short sounds.	Long sounds.	Short sounds.
$\bar{b}ate$	$\acute{b}at$	$\bar{g}ate$	$\acute{g}lad$
$\bar{p}ate$	$\acute{p}at$	$\bar{wh}ite$	$\acute{w}it$
$\bar{l}ate$	$\acute{h}at$	$\bar{s}light$	$\acute{s}lit$
$\bar{s}tr\bar{a}it$	$\acute{s}ad$	$\bar{s}prite$	$\acute{h}it$

Long sounds.	Short sounds.	Long sounds.	Short sounds.
feēt	fīt	poōl	pūll
beāt	bīt	pōle	hōt
peāt	pīt	nōte	nōt
coōl	būll	boāt, &c.	bōss, &c.

§ 56. *Quantity of Syllables.*—In every syllable there must be one vowel sound. In no syllable can there be more than one vowel sound. These two facts taken together shew that the vowel is the essential part of the syllable. The application of this fact will appear within a few sentences. At present it is necessary to inquire into the length of syllables.

The syllable *men* and the syllable *mend* are of different lengths. The latter is longer than the former by a sound, *i. e.* by the sound expressed by the letter *d*. In both syllables, however, the vowel is the same, and consequently of the same quantity. Thus we see that, as far as the vowel *taken by itself* is concerned, the two syllables (*men* and *mend*) are of the same length, whilst they are of different lengths if the vowel *be considered along with the consonants that follow it.* (*n, d.*)

Again, the syllable *seen* and the syllable *see* are of different lengths. The latter is shorter than the former by a sound, *i. e.* by the sound expressed by the letter *n*. In both syllables, however, the vowel is the same, and consequently of the same quantity. Thus we see that, as far as the vowel *taken by itself* is concerned, the two syllables (*seen* and *see*) are of the same quantity, whilst they are of different quantities if the vowel *be considered along with the consonant (or consonants) that follow it.*

Hence there are two ways of determining the quantity of a syllable.

1st, By measuring it by the quantity of the vowel. In this case short vowels form short syllables, even though the number of consonants that follow them be great; and long vowels form long syllables, even though few or no consonants follow.

2nd, By measuring it by the vowels and consonants taken together. In this case short vowels constitute long syllables when followed by a number of consonants, and long vowels constitute short syllables when followed by few or no consonants.

In the English language it is the former measure that is adopted; that is, the quantity of the vowel determines the quantity of the syllable.

§ 57. *Orthography*.—This term is derived from the two Greek words, *orthos* (*upright, right, correct*) and *graphó* (*I write*). It signifies right writing. Orthography teaches us to represent the words of the spoken language by means of letters; that is, by writing or printing. It exhibits the principles of spelling, and deals with the application to practice of the signs (or letters) of the alphabet. If we first pronounce a word (*e.g. man, child*), then spell it and write it down, and, lastly, inquire whether the spelling is correct, we ask a question belonging to the province of orthography.

Orthography deals with words as they are spelt, or with language as it is written.

§ 58. *Orthoepy*.—Orthoepy is different from orthography. There are a vast number of words of which the pronunciation is doubtful, being sounded differently by different persons. For instance, the word *neither* is pronounced in three ways: *neither, nayther, and neether*. To ascertain the proper pronunciation of words is the

province of orthoepy. The word means right pronunciation. It teaches us to speak the words of our language accurately. It exhibits the principles of pronunciation, and deals with the elementary sounds of our language and with their combinations. If we first pronounce a word, and then ask whether we have pronounced it properly, we ask a question belonging to the province of orthoepy. Orthoepy deals with words as they are sounded, or with language as it is sounded.

The term is derived from two Greek words, *orthos* (*upright, right, correct*) and *epó* (*I speak*).

§ 59. In no language do the spelling and the speaking (that is, the orthography and the orthoepy) absolutely coincide. The former always represents the latter more or less imperfectly. Some of the reasons for this, in the particular case of our own language, may be seen in §§ 47 and 48. In those sections is shewn that the number of simple elementary sounds is greater than that of the simple elementary signs (or letters) expressive of them. This deficiency reduces the orthography to the following dilemma. Either certain sounds must not be distinguished at all, or else they must be distinguished by means more or less incorrect. A practical knowledge of some of the main peculiarities may be collected from the forthcoming observations upon the use of particular letters. Previously, however, it is necessary to be familiar with the following facts.

§ 60. *The Broad and Small vowels.*—Of the vowels three are what is called Broad, and three what is called Small. The broad vowels are *a, o, u*; the small vowels are *e, i*, and *y* (whenever that letter is sounded as *e* or *i*).

§ 61. *The affinities of k with s.*—It is a fact observed in most languages, that, under certain circumstances, the sound of *k* has a tendency to change into that of *s*. There are innumerable instances of syllables which in an early stage of language were sounded *kee*, and *ki*, being, in a later stage of the same language, sounded as *see*, *si*. At other times the change is from *k* to *tsh*. There are innumerable instances of syllables which in an early stage of language were sounded as *kee*, and *ki*, being, in a later stage of the same language, sounded as *tshee*, and *tshi* (in the English orthography *chee* and *chi*).

§ 62. *The affinity between g and z.*—It is a fact observed in most languages, that, under certain circumstances, the sound of *g* (as in *got*) has a tendency to change into some sound allied to that of *z*. There are innumerable instances of syllables which in an early stage of a language were sounded *gee*,¹ and *gi*, being, in a later stage of the same language, sounded as *dzhee*² and *dzhi*.

§ 63. Observe in the two preceded sections the words "*certain circumstances.*" The circumstances that especially favour the conversion of the sounds of *k* and *g* (as in *kin* and *got*) into the sounds allied to *s* and *z*, are

1. The fact of their being immediately followed by the sound of the semi-vowel *y* (as in *yet*).

2. The fact of their being immediately followed by a small vowel. See § 60.

§ 64. *Conventional methods of expressing the quantity of vowels.*—As this applies to all the vowels equally,

¹ As the *g* in *gig*, *gibberish*, and *gun*.

² As the *j* in *jig*, and the *g* in *gibbet*.

it may be mentioned in the present place more properly than under the head of any particular letter.

The sounds of the vowel *a* in *fate* and *fat* evidently differ from each other in respect to quantity. Upon this fact the following questions arise :

1. Whether it is necessary to express this difference in writing ?

2. Supposing the necessity of so doing, how it is to be expressed ?

The *a* in *fate* is long, the *a* in *fat* short. The shortest way of expressing this difference is to have two separate signs (or letters); one for the long sound, the other for the short one. This is actually to a certain extent done in the Greek language ; where the sounds of the *e* in *bed*, and the *o* in *not*, are expressed by the signs ϵ and o , whilst those of the *ee* in *feet*, and the *o* in *note*, are expressed by the signs η and ω respectively. Such, however, is not the method in English. In English we have methods less simple, partaking of the nature of expedients.

§ 65. *Conventional methods of expressing the Longness of vowels.*—This is done in three ways.

I. By doubling the vowel ; *fēd*, *feēd*.

II. By adding a second vowel, and so giving the appearance of a diphthong ; *rēd*, *reād*.

III. By adding at the end of the word the letter *e*, which, from the circumstance of its not being sounded, is called the *e* mute ; *bāt*, *bāte*.

§ 66. *Conventional method of expressing the Shortness of a vowel.*—The fact of a vowel being short is generally expressed by doubling the consonant that follows. In § 45 it is stated that a real doubling of the sound

of a consonant within one and the same syllable is impossible ; hence such words as *toss* and *egg* are to be looked upon as matters of spelling only. This mode of spelling gives us a convenient method of exhibiting to the eye the fact of the vowel that precedes the doubled letter being short. The reader is again warned that the sound of the consonant is not really doubled.

§ 67. *The Etymological Principle.*—The sound of the letter *c* in the word *city* is a sound that we naturally express by the letter *s* ; and, if we looked only to the expression of the sound, we should spell the word *sity*. This, however, is not the case, and that for the following reason, — the word *city* is a word of Latin origin. In that language its form was *civitas*, and it was spelt with *c*. To change this *c* into *s* conceals in some degree the origin of the word : for this reason the *c* is retained.

There are in the English language many words like *city*, where the natural spelling is with *s*, but where *c* is retained for the sake of exhibiting the origin, history, or derivation of the word. Now the origins, histories, and derivations of words are taught by what is called Etymology ; so that, when we admit a mode of spelling that for the mere representation of the sound is unnecessary, we admit it on what is called the Etymological Principle.

§ 68. *Remarks on the powers of the letter C.*—1. Before a small vowel *c* is pronounced as *s* ;¹ *city*, *citizen*, *cetaceous*, *Cyprian*. (See §§ 60, 61, 62, 63.)

2. Before a broad vowel or a consonant *c* is pronounced as *k* ; *cat*, *craft*. (See *k*.)

¹ In *sin* ; never as *s* in *those*, i. e. as *z*.

3. With the letter *h* it serves to express the sound of *tsh* ; as *church*, *crutch*.

4. At the end of a word *c* rarely occurs. (See *k*.)

§ 69. *Remarks on the powers of the letter D.* — In a large class of words the *d* is used in spelling where the real sound is that of *t*. Words like *stuffed*, *tripped*, *plucked*, &c. are all pronounced *stuft*, *tript*, *pluckt*, &c. It is very important to be familiar with the orthographical substitution of *d* for *t*.

§ 70. *Remarks on the powers of the letter G.*—1. Before a small vowel *g* is pronounced as *j* ; *Ægypt*, *gin*, *gibe*, *gibbet*, *con-geal*, *gem*, &c. (See § 62.) Not, however, so invariably as *c* is sounded like *s* in the same situation ; *get*, *gig*, *craggy*.

2. Before a broad vowel or consonant *g* is pronounced as in *gun*.

3. With the letter *h* it retains its natural sound, as in *ghost*. In this respect it differs from *c*. (See § 68. 3.)

§ 71. *Remarks on certain powers of the letter H.* — The letter *h* enters into combination with other letters, and these combinations of *h* with other letters are used as convenient modes of expressing those simple elementary sounds which have no sign (or letter) equally simple to represent them. (See § 48.)

1. The combination of *h* with *t*, or *th*. This combination expresses two sounds : 1. that of the *th* in *thin* ; 2. that of the *th* in *thine*.

2. The combination of *h* with *s*, or *sh*. This combination expresses the sound of the *sh* in *shine*.

3. The combination of *h* with *c*, or *ch*. This combination expresses the sound of the *ch* in *chest*, and is equivalent to *tsh*.

4. For *h* combined with *g*, see § 70.

§ 72. *The letter I.*—For the circumstance of this letter representing two distinct sounds, see § 33, 6. 37, 1.

§ 73. *The letter K.*—1. *K* rarely comes before a broad vowel. In this place we generally find *c*. (See § 68.)

2. But it is used before a small vowel, because in that position *c* would run the chance of being sounded as *s*. (See § 68.)

3. At the end of words, *k* is used in preference to *c*. We write *stick*, *lock*, rather than *stic*, *loc*, or *sticc*, *locc*.

4. *K* is rarely doubled. We write *stick*, *lock*, rather than *stikk*, *lokk*.

§ 74. *The letter S.*—In a very large class of words the letter *s* is used in spelling where the real sound is that of the letter *z*. Words like *stags*, *balls*, *peas*, &c. are pronounced *stagz*, *ballz*, *peaz*. It is very important to be familiar with this orthographical substitution of *s* for *z*.

§ 75. The whole of the details in the English spelling are far too numerous to be exhibited in the present pages. Those that have been just noticed are the points of the greatest importance. By attending to what follows, we shall see that for most of the leading peculiarities there is a reason.

§ 76. The reason for *c*, when followed by a small vowel, having the sound of *s*, may be collected from §§ 60, 61, 62, 63.

§ 77. The reason for *c* (§ 68) being rarely found at the end of words is as follows:—

The sound of the letter *c* is *either* that of *k* or of *s*.

Which of these sounds it shall represent is determined by what follows. (See § 68.)

If followed by nothing, it has no fixed sound.
 At the end of words it is followed by nothing
 Whence it has no fixed sound ; and
 Therefore is inconvenient at the end of words.

§ 78. The reason for *d* being often sounded like *t* (§ 69) is as follows :

The words where it is so sounded are either the past tenses of verbs, or the participles of verbs,—as *plucked*, *tossed*, *stepped*, &c.

Now the letter *e* in the second syllable of these words (and of words like them) is not sounded ; whence the sounds of *k* (in *pluck*), of *s* (in *toss*), and of *p* (in *step*) come in immediate contact with the sound of the letter *d*.

But the sound of the letter *d* is flat, whilst those of *k*, *s*, and *p* are sharp ; so that the combinations *kd*, *sd*, and *pd* are unpronounceable. Hence *d* is sounded as *t*. (See § 44.)

In the older stages of the English language the vowel *e* (or some other vowel equivalent to it) was actually sounded, and in those times *d* was sounded also.

Hence *d* is retained in spelling, although its sound is the sound of *t*.

§ 79. The reason for *g*, when followed by a small vowel, having the sound of *dzh* (or *j*), may be collected from § 62.

§ 80. The reason for *h* appearing in combination with *t*, *s*, and *c*, in words like *thin* (and *thine*), *shine*, and *chest*, is as follows :

The Greeks had in their language the sounds of the *t* in *tin*, and of the *th* in *thin*.

These two sounds they viewed in a proper light ; that

is, they considered them both as simple single elementary sounds.

Accordingly, they expressed them by signs, or letters, equally simple, single, and elementary. The first they denoted by the sign, or letter, τ , the second by the sign, or letter, θ .

They observed also the difference in sound between these two sounds.

To this difference of sound they gave names. The sound of τ (t) was called *psilon* (a word meaning *bare*). The sound of θ (th) was called *dasy* (a word meaning *rough*).

In the Latin language, however, there was no such sound as that of th in *thin*.

And, consequently, there was no simple single sign to represent it.

Notwithstanding this, the Latins knew of the sound, and of its being in Greek; and, at times, when they wrote words of Greek extraction, they had occasion to represent it.

They also knew that the sound was called *dasy*, in opposition to the sound of t (τ), which was *psilon*.

Now the Latins conceived that the difference between a sound called *psilon*, and a sound called *dasy*, consisted in the latter being pronounced with a stronger breath, or breathing.

In the Latin language the word *aspiration* means *breathing*; so that, according to the views just stated, the Greek word *dasy* was translated by the Latin word *aspiratus* (*i. e. aspirated, or accompanied by a breathing.*)

In Latin the letter h was not called a sound, but merely a breathing (*aspiratio*).

This being the case, the addition of the letter *k* was thought a fit way of expressing the difference between the sounds of the *t* in *tin* and the *th* in *thin*.

As the influence of the Latin language was great, this view of the nature of the sound of *th* (and of sounds like it) was common.

The Anglo-Saxons, like the Greeks, had a simple single sign for the simple single sound: *viz.* *p* (for the *th* in *thin*), and *ð* (for the *th* in *thine*).

But their Norman conquerors had neither sound nor sign, and so they succeeded in superseding the Anglo-Saxon by the Latin mode of spelling.

Add to this, that they treated the two sounds of *th* (*thin* and *thine*) as one, and spelt them both alike.

In effecting the combinations *sh* and *ch*, other causes, requiring long explanation, were at work over and above the one just given.

§ 81. Of the letter *k* it may be said in general terms that it is never used except where *c* would be pronounced as *s*; that is, before a small vowel (§ 73). If *kid* were spelt *cid*, it would run the chance of being pronounced *sid*.

Now, the preference of *c* to *k* is another instance of the influence of the Latin language. The letter *k* was wanting in Latin; and, as such, was eschewed by languages whose orthography was influenced by the Latin.

§ 82. Why *k* occurs rather than *c* at the end of words (§ 73) may be seen in § 77.

§ 83. Why *k* is not doubled (§ 73) may be collected from § 81. *K* is never used where *c* will serve the purpose. Now *c* followed by *k* is *not* liable to be pro-

nounced as *s*. Hence, we write *stick* rather than *stikk*. Why *stick* is preferable to *sticc* may be seen in § 77.

§ 84. The reason for *s* being often sounded like *z* (§ 74) is as follows :

The words where it is so sounded are either possessive cases, or plural nominatives ; as *stag's*, *stags*, *slab's*, *slabs*, &c.

Now in these words (and in words like them) the sounds of *g* (in *stag*) and of *b* (in *slab*) come in immediate contact with the sound of the letter *s*.

But the sound of the letter *s* is sharp, whilst those of *g* and *b* are flat, so that the combinations *gs*, *bs*, are unpronounceable. Hence *s* is sounded as *z*. (See § 44.)

In the older stages of the English language a vowel was interposed between the last letter of the word and the letter *s*, and, when that vowel was sounded, *s* was sounded also.

Hence *s* is retained in spelling, although its sound is the sound of *z*.

§ 85. This fact of *s* at the end of words so frequently being sounded as *z* reduces the writer to a strait whenever he has to express the *true* sound of *s* at the end of a word. To write *s* on such an occasion would be to use a letter that would probably be mispronounced ; that is, pronounced as *z*.

The first expedient he would hit upon would be to double the *s*, and write *ss*. But here he is met with the following difficulty : — A double consonant expresses the shortness of the vowel preceding (§ 66) ; as *töss*, *hiss*, *egg*, &c. Hence a double *s* (*ss*) might be misinterpreted.

In this case he has recourse to the letter *c*. The

letter *c*, followed by a small vowel, is sounded as *s* (§ 68). Hence he writes *pence*, *dice*, *mice*, *rice*, &c., words which, if written *pense*, *dise*, *mise*, *rise*, would probably be sounded *penz*, *dize*, *mize*, *rise*, as the *last word actually is* sounded.

PART III.

ETYMOLOGY.

OF PROPOSITIONS.

§ 86. PREVIOUS to proceeding further in the study of the English language, it is necessary to be familiar with the nature and structure of Propositions. This is exhibited in the following sentences. *Man is mortal,—summer is pleasant,—winter is cold,—life is short,—art is long,—fire is hot,—iron is useful,—bread is cheap.*—Each of these assertions forms what is called a proposition. It must be remarked that in each of the propositions given above the number of words is exactly three; neither more nor less. The next point to observe is this, *viz.* that in each proposition an assertion of some sort is made. In the first it is asserted of *man*, that he is *mortal*; in the second it is asserted of *summer*, that it is *pleasant*; and so on throughout. If it were not for the fact of an assertion being made, there would be no proposition. Every proposition is an assertion, and every assertion a proposition.

In each of the propositions above, we may insert the word *not* after *is*, and say *man-is not mortal*, *summer is not pleasant*, *winter is not cold*, *life is not short*, and so on. Notwithstanding the insertion of the word *not*, the asser-

tion still remains ; and, as the assertion remains, the proposition remains along with it. The only difference is, that in some cases, as in the words *man is not mortal*, the assertion, or proposition, is a false one. Now the insertion of the word *not* has shewn that of propositions, or assertions, there are two sorts : 1. those like *man is mortal*, wherein something is affirmed or stated to be ; 2. those like *man is not mortal*, wherein something is denied, or stated *not* to be : *i. e.* the fact of *man* being *mortal* is affirmed in the first case, whilst the fact of *man* being *mortal* is denied in the second case.

Every proposition belongs to one of the classes above ; that is, it is either an affirmative proposition or a negative proposition. In consequence of this, there must, of necessity, be in every proposition something expressive of its nature in this respect ; that is, if it affirms anything, there must be the word *is* to express that affirmation ; and, if it denies anything, there must be the words *is not* to express that denial. To say *man mortal, summer pleasant, winter cold, life short, &c., &c.* is to combine words to no purpose. They form only parts of propositions. We have now seen that in every proposition there is at least one element absolutely essential. Besides this there is another.

If we say, *is mortal, is pleasant, is cold, is short, is long, &c.*, we combine words to no purpose. They form only parts of propositions : they convey no meaning : they require the addition of something else in order to complete the sense. If a person uses them, we ask the questions, *what is mortal ? what is pleasant ? what is cold ? &c.* Something or other, that is, some object,

must be *mortal*, or *pleasant*, or *cold*. What this object is we wish to know. We wish to know the object to which the words *mortal*, *cold*, *warm*, apply: we wish to know the subject of the discourse: we wish to know what that is concerning which the assertion *that it is cold*, or *pleasant*, &c. is made. Without some subject concerning which we can affirm or deny something, no assertion can be made; and, where there is no assertion, there is no proposition. We have now seen that in every proposition a second element is absolutely essential.

But, besides this, there is a third. If we say, *man is*, *summer is*, *winter is*, *life is*, *art is*, *fire is*, &c.; or if we say, *man is not*, *summer is not*, *winter is not*, *life is not*, &c.; we combine words to no purpose. They form only parts, or fragments, or rudiments of propositions. We speak, indeed, of *man*, *summer*, &c. but we state nothing concerning them: we say nothing about them. As to whether they are *mortal* or *not mortal*, *cold* or *not cold*, we make no assertion. *Man*, *summer*, &c. are the subjects of our discourse; but, as there is nothing that we affirm or deny concerning them, (such as the fact of their being *mortal*, *warm*, &c.) there is no assertion; and, where there is no assertion, there is no proposition. Thus we have seen that in every proposition a third element is absolutely necessary.

Every proposition has three elements or parts. Their names are as follows:

§ 87. The object concerning which we make an assertion, or the subject of our discourse, is called *The Subject*. *Man*, *summer*, *winter*, &c. are Subjects; and we

can assert of them that they are *mortal*, or *warm*, or *cold*, &c. &c.; or else the contrary, i. e. that they are *not mortal*, *not warm*, &c. &c. In the first case they are the Subjects of an affirmative, in the next of a negative proposition.

§ 88. The assertion made concerning any object, or concerning the subject of our discourse, is called the Predicate. *Mortal*, *warm*, *cold*, &c. are Predicates; and we can speak of certain things as *mortal*, *warm*, *cold*, or the contrary. In the first case they are Predicates in an affirmative, in the second they are Predicates in a negative proposition.

§ 89. That part of a proposition which connects the subject and predicate is called the Copula. If the word *is* stand by itself, the proposition is affirmative; if it be accompanied by the word *not*, it is negative.

§ 90. Thus a proposition consists of three parts: (1) the object spoken of, called the Subject; (2) that which is said of it, called the Predicate; whilst between them comes (3) the Copula, by which the Predicate (*e.g.* the word *mortal*) is affirmed (*is*) or denied (*is not*) of the Subject—*man is mortal*, or *man is not mortal*.

The Copula connects the Predicate with the Subject.

§ 91. The following words, amongst many others, are capable of forming, by themselves, subjects.

man	bow	wealth
woman	arrow	happiness
child	dart	goodness
father	spear	strength
mother	fishing-rod	length

son	fisherman	air
daughter	hunter	fire
horse	shooter	water
mule	lioness	body
dog	book	soul
ox	pen	atmosphere
ass	ink	firmament
fowl	paper	sun
bird	virtue	sky
egg	vice	essence

§ 92. The following words, amongst many others, are capable of forming, by themselves, predicates.

good	deep	hunting
bad	broad	fishing
indifferent	long	shooting
big	short	shining
little	fierce	weeping
great	happy	groaning
small	virtuous	blazing
black	vicious	laughing
white	manly	thinking
red	womanly	standing
purple	childish	conquering
blue	fatherlike	conquered
green	mulish	hunted
hot	bodily	moved
cold	atmospheric	beaten
weak	essential	drifted
strong	personal	sifted
high	aërial	driven

The words in the third column should especially be observed. They all end in *-ing*, *-en*, or *-ed*.

Besides these, all the words mentioned in § 91, that is, all that could by themselves form subjects, can also, by themselves, form predicates. The contrary, however, does not take place; that is, the words that can, by themselves, form predicates, cannot also, by themselves, form subjects.

§ 93. We have now seen that there are at least three sorts, or classes, of words: (1.) those that can, by themselves, form *either* subjects or predicates; (2.) those that can, by themselves, form predicates *only*; (3.) those that can, by themselves, form copulas. To these must be added a fourth class, consisting of words like *not*, that can convert an affirmative copula into a negative one.

§ 94. The form of proposition that is at once the simplest and the most regular is that where the number of words and the number of parts coincides; that is, where an affirmative proposition consists of three words (neither more nor less), and a negative one of four. In this case each part consists of a single word; *e. g.* the subject of one (*man*), the predicate of one (*mortal*), the copula of one (*is*) = *man is mortal*, *man is not mortal*.

It is not, however, the usage of language for propositions to take always the simple and regular form exhibited above. Languages may be so constructed as to admit of two of the parts of a proposition being included in a single word; and the fact is, that, in reality, most languages are so constructed.

§ 95. The copula and predicate may be expressed by

a single word. To say *men die*, or *fires burn*, is to make an assertion concerning *men* and *fires*. This assertion is that they *are dying*, or that they *are not dying*; that they *are burning*, or that they *are not burning*. Instead, however, of saying *are dying*, or *are burning*, we say *die*, and *burn*. The predicate in full would be *burning*, and the copula in full would be *are* (or *is*). Whether, however, *man dies* or *does not die*, or whether *fire burns*, or *does not burn*, is expressed as well by the words *man dies*, and *fire burns*, as by the fuller form, *man is dying*, *fire is burning*.

§ 96. We have now seen that there is a fifth class of words, namely, those that can, by themselves, form a copula and predicate at once. The words in this class may be said to be of a mixed nature, since they can be resolved into the copulas and predicates to which they are equivalent.

§ 97. The following words, amongst others, are capable of forming, by themselves, and at the same time, a predicate and a copula.

eat	speak	hunt
drink	teach	fish
speak	learn	shoot
breathe	read	shine
live	write	weep
die	worship	groan
fear	petrify	blaze
hope	boil	laugh
love	ride	think
see	walk	stand
hear	sigh	conquer

murmur	mock	move
astonish	stain	beat
pine	impeach	drift
hunger	drive	sift

Compare the words in the third column with those in column 3, § 92.

§ 98. The copula and subject;

§ 99. The copula, subject, and predicate may respectively be expressed by a single word. In this latter case a proposition would consist of three parts, but only of one word. In the English language, however, these two latter varieties in the form of the proposition are comparatively unimportant; at any rate, the knowledge of them may be deferred.

§ 100. The following list of words indicates a fresh point in the structure of propositions: *wisely, brightly, justly, quickly, slowly, badly, once, twice, thrice, now, then, already, to-morrow, oft, of, to, for, by, with, from, in, into, over, under, through, at, near, on, about, &c. &c.* Not one of these words can form any part of a proposition by itself; that is, not one of them can be either subject, predicate, copula, or negative, so long as it stands alone. We may verify this by constructing such combinations as *wisely is good, from is black, man is wisely, &c. &c.* It is only when taken along with other words that the words above can find place in a proposition. We can say *the sun is shining brightly, the sun in the sky is shining*; since, in these cases, the words *brightly* and *in* are subordinate to the words *shining* and *sky* respectively.

We have now seen that there is another class, or

division, of words ; *viz.* those that can form only parts of propositions. This class falls into sub-divisions. At present, however, enough is known concerning the structure of propositions.

THE NOUN.

§ 101. All words that, by themselves, can form both subjects or predicates, are called Nouns. §§ 91, 92.

§ 102. Nouns are of two sorts, Substantives and Adjectives. The words under § 91 are Substantives. Of these words each is the name of some object which we can either see, hear, taste, smell, feel, or think about. Some of them we can perceive with our outward senses, such as the eyes or ears (*e. g. man, fowl, bird, paper*). Others we can perceive by the understanding (as *length, wealth, goodness*). This is the reason why we are enabled to make them the subjects of propositions.

§ 103. A noun that can, by itself, form either the subject or the predicate of a proposition, and is also the *name* of an object, is called a Noun Substantive, or, simply, a Substantive.

§ 104. The words under § 92 are Adjectives. Of these words each is the name expressive of some quality belonging to some object (*e. g. bad, good, black, white*). We can say that certain objects are, or are not, endowed with certain qualities ; *e. g.* we can say that *man* (the name expressing an object) *is mortal* (the name expressing a quality), or *endowed with the quality of mortality*. Concerning such and such objects (or subjects) we may assert such and such qualities. This is the reason why words like those in § 92 can form by themselves the predicates of propositions.

A noun that, by itself, can form the predicate of a proposition, but cannot, by itself, form the subject of one, is called a Noun Adjective, or, simply, an Adjective.

SUBSTANTIVES.

§ 105. *Gender.* — The words *boy* and *girl*, *father* and *mother*, *brother* and *sister*, *uncle* and *aunt*, *horse* and *mare*, are the names of animals, or objects, of different sexes. *Boy*, *father*, *brother*, *uncle*, *horse*, are the names of Males : *girl*, *mother*, *sister*, *aunt*, are the names of Females. In the following list, the words in the first column are (like the words *boy*, *father*, *horse*, &c.) names for male objects ; and those in the second column, (like *girl*, *mother*, *mare*,) the names for female ones.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
bachelor	maid	ram	ewe
buck	doe	husband	wife
bull	cow	nephew	niece
drake	duck	king	queen

Here objects of different sexes are expressed by wholly different words.

§ 106. The words of the next list are somewhat in a different condition. As before, the names of male objects occur in the first, those of female are in the second column.

Male.	Female.
he-goat	she-goat
cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
man-servant	maid-servant

Here objects of different sexes are expressed by *partially* different words. The words *cock* and *hen*, placed

before the word *sparrow*, form a compound word. And so it is with the other words, *he-goat*, *she-goat*, *man-servant*, *maid-servant*. The parts in italics are added to the original word, in order to denote a difference of sex. It must be remarked that each part of the words above, even when separated from the other, forms an independent word. *He*, *she*, *cock*, *hen*, *man*, and *maid*, are independent words; and so are *goat*, *sparrow*, and *servant*. Hence it is that words, *he-goat*, &c. are compound words, and in the examples just given the difference of sex is expressed by Composition. Composition is the addition of whole words.

§ 107. *Difference of Sex expressed by Derivation.*—The words in the first column are the names of males, those in the second of females.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
actor	actress	peer	peeress
baron	baroness	poet	poetess
count	countess	tiger	tigress
lion	lioness	duke	duchess

Here the names of females are formed from those of males by the addition of the syllable *ess*; as *lion-ess* (a female lion) from *lion* (a male lion). Now if from the word *lioness* we take away the first two syllables (*lion*), and leave the syllable *ess* alone, we have no full independent word, but only the part of a word, since *ess* has no meaning when taken by itself. In this respect words like *lioness* differ from words like *he-goat*, where each of the parts, if separated from the other, forms a full and true word (*he* and *goat*). The word *lion-ess* is derived from *lion*; so that *lion-ess*, and words like it, are exam-

ples of a difference of sex expressed by derivation. Derivation is the addition of *parts* of words.

§ 108. We may now add to any of the words that have gone before, some such word as *good*, *bad*, *brave*, &c., &c.; in other words, some adjective; and say, *a good father*, *a good mother*, *a brave boy*, *a brave girl*, *a fierce lion*, *a fierce lioness*, *a good actor*, *a good actress*. Having done this, we remark that the words *good*, *bad*, *brave*, &c., &c., whether joined to words like *actor* and *lion* (the names of male objects), or to words like *actress* or *lioness* (the names of female objects), are precisely the same. We use the words *good* and *bold* in speaking of males, and we use the same words in speaking of females. Now, although this is the case in English, it is not the case with all languages. In many languages the word *bold*, or *good*, would take one form when it was used to denote males, and another to denote females. In the Latin language *vir* means *man* (the name of a male object), *mulier* means *woman* (the name of a female object), and *bon* means *good*. Now, if the Latin language were like the English, they would say *bon vir*=*good man*; *bon mulier*=*good woman*. But, as the Latin is unlike the English, they do not say so. The Latin phrase is *bon-us vir*=*good man*, *bon-a mulier*=*good woman*; that is, the letter *-a* is added if the substantive be the name of a female, and the letters *-us* are added if it be the name of a male. Again, if the English language were the same in this respect as the Latin, we should say, *good-us man*=*good man* (*bonus vir*), *good-a woman* (*bona mulier*). This difference between the English and Latin must be kept in mind.

Again.—If we wish to speak of more *lions* or of more

fathers than one, we say *lion-s*, *father-s*; that is, we add the letter *-s* to the word *lion* and *father* (the names of male objects.) And if we wish to speak of more *lionesses* or *mothers* than one, we do just the same; that is, we add the letter *-s* to the words *lioness* and *mother* (the names of female objects). In other words, whether the substantive be the name of a male, or the name of a female, the letter added is one and the same, *viz.* the letter *-s*. So also we say, *the father's son*, and *the mother's son*; *the lion's whelp*, and *the lioness's whelp*: that is, whether the word be the name of a male or a female, we add *s* indifferently. All this is different in the Latin. In that language *dominus* means a *master*, and *domina* means a *mistress*; *domini* means of a *master*, *dominæ* of a *mistress*; *domini* means *masters*, *dominæ* *mistresses*. Now the last letters of the words *domin-æ* and *domin-i* differ; and they differ, because one word is the name of a male, and the other the name of a female. If the English language followed the same principle, we should say *lion-i* for *lions*, and *lion-æ* for *lioness-es*, which we do not. From this we learn that in respect to the expression of a difference of sex there is something to be found in the Latin language which is wholly or partially wanting in the English. This we may call the Grammatical Expression of the difference of Sex; or Gender.

§ 109. *Masculine, Feminine, Neuter*.—In words like *boy* and *girl* the first word is the name of a male object, the second of a female one. In grammar, however, instead of saying that the word *boy* is a *male* word, and the word *girl* a *female* word, we use the terms *Masculine* and *Feminine*; and we say that *boy* is a word of the *Masculine* Gender, and *girl* a word of the *Feminine*

Gender. But besides such objects as *boys* and *girls*, which are either male or female, there are in the world a vast number of objects, such as *swords*, *bows*, *shoes*, *iron*, &c., that are neither male nor female. These objects have names, and these names are very often neither Masculine nor Feminine. Words of this sort, that are neither Masculine nor Feminine, are said to be of the Neuter Gender. We may say then that there are three Genders ; the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter. The Masculine denotes males ; the Feminine, females ; and the Neuter *things*, or objects that are neither male nor female. We can now apply this to the words mentioned above.

§ 110. In the English *Substantives* there is no distinction of gender. In Anglo-Saxon, however, this distinction existed.

§ 111. *Number*.—In the following phrases we speak of a single object ; that is, of one object and of no more than one :—*a father, my father, this father, one father ; a son, my son, this son, one son ; a horse, this horse, that horse, my horse, one horse*. In this case the words *father, son*, and *horse* appear in a simple form, without the addition of any letter or syllable whatsoever. This is not the case with the words in the list forthcoming ; *these father-s, these son-s, these hors-es, &c., &c.* Here we speak of more objects than one ; that is, of *two* (or more) *fathers*, of *two* (or more) *sons*, and of *two* (or more) *horses*. In this case the letter *s* is added to the words *father, son*, and *horse* respectively. Now in the Latin language the word *singularis* means *single* ; so that the forms without *s*, such as *father, son*, and *horse*, denoting respectively *one father, one son, one horse*, and no more,

are called *Singular* forms, and are said to be in the *Singular* Number. On the other hand, in the Latin language the words *plus* and *pluralis* mean *more* or *many* ; so that the form with *s*, like *father-s*, *son-s*, and *horse-es*, denoting respectively *two* (or more) *fathers*, *two* (or more) *sons*, *two* (or more) *horses*, are called *Plural* forms, or are said to be in the *Plural* Number. In the English language we may therefore say that there are two numbers, the Singular and the Plural. The Singular speaks of one (*a father*), and the Plural speaks of more than one (*fathers*, *books*).

§ 112. The Plural Number is formed from the Singular, and not the Singular from the Plural. The words *horses*, *fathers*, &c., are formed from *horse* and *father*, and not *vice versa*.

§ 113. In most words, in English, the plural number is, in the spoken language, formed from the singular by the addition of the sound of the *s* in *seal*, of the *z* in *zeal*, or of the syllable *ez* ; as *stag-z*, *stack-s*, *stag-ez*.

§ 114. The plural number is expressed in the written language by the letter *s*, or by the syllable *es*. The letter *z* and the syllable *ez*, although sounded, are never written. This, however, is a matter of orthography, not of etymology. See § 44, and § 45, *stag-s*, *stack-s*, *stag-es*.

§ 115. Which of the three additions (*z*, *s*, or *ez*) be the one adopted depends upon the nature of the last sound of the singular. See §§ 44, 45.

§ 116. If the last sound of the singular be that of the letter *s*, or *z*, or of the *sh* in *shine*, or of the *z* in *azure*, the addition is that of the sound of the syllable *-ez* (spelt *-es*) ; as *loss-ez*, *kiss-ez*, *blaz-ez*, *haz-ez*,

blush-ez, lash-ez, spelt loss-es, kiss-es, blaz-es, haz-es, blush-es, lash-es.

Observe.—Words ending in the sound of the *ch* in *chest*, and the *j* in *jest*, really end in *sh* and *zh* (§ 39), and form their plurals accordingly: as *church, church-ez; crutch, crutch-ez; witch, witch-ez; judge, judg-ez; barge, barg-ez; spelt church-es, crutch-es, witch-es, judg-es, barg-es.*

Observe.—As the sound of the letter *x* is equivalent to that of *ks* (or *cks*, or *cs*), words ending in that letter really end in *-s*, and form their plurals accordingly; as *box (bocks), box-ez (bocks-ez); fox (focks), fox-ez (focks-ez); spelt box-es, fox-es, &c.*

§ 117. If the last sound of the singular be that of a sharp mute (not *s* or *sh*), the sound added to it in order to form the plural is that of the letter *s* in *seal*: as *top, top-s; muff, muff-s; cat, cat-s; moth, moth-s; stack, stack-s.* (See § 44.)

§ 118. If the last sound of the singular be that of a flat mute (not *z* or *zh*), a liquid, or a vowel, the sound added to it in order to form the plural is that of the *z* in *zeal*: as *slab, slab-z; slave, slave-z; lad, lad-z; dog, dog-z; hill, hill-z; drum, drum-z; hen, hen-z; bar, bar-z; day, day-z; flea, flea-z; bow, bow-z; spelt slabs, slaves, lads, dogs, hills, drums, hens, bars, days, fleas, bows.*

§ 119. Having gone through the details given above, we are now enabled to give the rule for the formation of the plural in more general language. We can now say that the greater part of the English plurals is formed by the addition of the sound of *s*, modified according to the termination of the singular.

§ 120. *Plural of certain words in f.*—The following words end in the sharp mute *f*: *loaf, half, wife, life, calf, leaf*. Now, according to § 117, their plurals should be formed by the addition of the sound of *s* in *seal*, and so be *loafs, halves, wives, lifes, calfs, leafs* (pronounced *loafce, halfce, wifce, lifce, calfce, leafce*). This, however, is not the case. Their plurals are formed by the addition of the sound of *z* in *zeal*, and are *loaves, halves, wives, lives, calves, leaves* (pronounced *loavz, halvz, wivz, livz, calvz, leavz*); the sound of the *f* being changed into that of *v*. Respecting these words we must observe:

1. That the vowel before *f* is *long*. Words like *muff*, where the vowel is short, form their plurals by means of the sound of the *s* in *seal*; as *muff, muff-s* (pronounced *muffce*).

2. That they are all of Anglo-Saxon origin. In the words *mischief, chief, handkerchief, grief, relief*, the plural is formed as in *muff*; that is, by the addition of the sound of *s*; as *mischiefs, chiefs, &c.*

Putting these two facts together, we can use more general language, and say that

When a word ends in the sound of *f*, preceded by a long vowel, and is of Anglo-Saxon origin, the plural is formed by the addition of the sound of the *z* in *zeal*.

To this rule there are two exceptions.

1. *Dwarf*; a word of Anglo-Saxon origin, but which forms its plural by means of the sound of *s*—*dwarfs* (pronounced *dwarfce*).

2. *Beef*; a word *not* of Anglo-Saxon origin, but which forms its plural by means of the sound of *z*—*beeves* (pronounced *beevz*).

If we ask the reason of this peculiarity in the form-

ation of the plurals of these words in *-f*, we shall find reason to believe that it lies with the singular rather than the plural forms. In Anglo-Saxon, *f* at the end of a word was sounded as *v*; and it is highly probable that the original *singulars* were sounded *loav*, *halv*, *wive*, *calv*, *leav*.

§ 121. *Plural forms in -ce.* — 1. According to § 118 the word *penny* should form its plural by means of the sound of the *z* in *zeal*. It does so, and, consequently, there is the plural form *pennies* (*penniz*): but, besides this, there is the form *pence*.

Now there are two plurals to the word *penny*, because there are two meanings. *Six pennies* means *six separate penny-pieces*. *Six pence* (or *sixpence*) means a *single coin equivalent to six penny-pieces*.

The plural *pence* has a further peculiarity. According to § 118, it ought to end in the sound of *z* in *zeal*, which it does not: it ends in the sound of *s* in *seal*. This serves to distinguish it from the plural of *pen*, which is *penz* (spelt *pens*).

2. *Dice.* — This word ends in the sound of *s* in *seal*, when, according to § 118, it should end in the sound of *z* in *zeal*. This serves to distinguish *dice* for play from *dies* (*diez*) for coining.

§ 122. *Equivocal forms from Singulars in s.* — The Number of the following words has always been a matter of discussion amongst Grammarians.

1. *Alms.* — Some say, *these alms* are *useful*; in which case the word *alms* is plural. Others say, *this alms* is *useful*; in which case the word *alms* is singular. Now in the word *alms* the *-s* is no sign of the plural number, but part of the original singular, like the *s* in *goose* or

loss. The Anglo-Saxon form was *ælmesse*. Notwithstanding this, we cannot say *alms-es* in the same way that we can say *loss-es*. Hence the word *alms* is, in respect to its original form, singular; in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural.

2. *Riches*.—Most writers say, *riches* are *useful*; in which case the word *riches* is plural. Still there are a few who say, *riches* is *useful*; in which case the word *riches* is singular. Now in the word *riches* the *-s* is no sign of the plural number, since there is no such *substantive* as *rich*; on the contrary, it is part of the original singular, like the *s* in *distress*. The form in the original French, from which language it was derived, was *richesse*. Notwithstanding this, we cannot say *riches-es* in the same way that we can say *distress-es*. Hence the word *riches* is, in respect to its original form, singular; in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural, most frequently the latter.

3. *News*.—Some say, *this news* is *good*; in which case the word *news* is singular. More rarely we find the expression *these news* are *good*; in which case the word *news* is plural. Now in the word *news* the *-s* (unlike the *s* in *alms* and *riches*) is no part of the original singular, but the sign of the plural, like the *s* in *trees*. Notwithstanding this, we cannot subtract the *s*, and say *new*, in the same way that we can form *tree* from *trees*. Hence the word *news* is, in respect to its original form, plural; in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural, most frequently the former.

4. *Means*.—Some say, *these means* are *useful*; in which case the word *means* is plural. Others say, *this means* is *useful*; in which case the word *means* is sin-

gular. Now in the word *means* the *-s* (unlike the *s* in *alms* and *riches*, but like the *s* in *news*) is no part of the original singular, but the sign of the plural, like the *s* in *trees*. The form in the original French, from which language the word is derived, is *moyen*, singular; *moyens*, plural. If we subtract from the word *means* the letter *s*, we say *mean*. Now as a singular form of the word *means*, with the sense it has in the phrase *ways and means*, there is in the current English no such word as *mean*, any more than there is such a word as *new* from *news*. But, in a different sense, there is the singular form *mean*; as in the phrase *the golden mean*, meaning *middle course*. Hence the word *means* is, in respect to its form, plural; in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural.

5. *Pains*. — Some say, *these pains* are *well-taken*; in which case the word *pains* is plural. Others say, *this pains* is *well-taken*; in which case the word *pains* is singular. The form in the original French, from which language the word is derived, is *peine*. The reasoning that has been applied to the word *means* is closely applicable to the word *pains*.

6. The same also applies to the word *amends*. The form in French is *amende*, without the *-s*.

7. *Mathematics, Physics, Metaphysics, Optics, Politics, Ethics, Pneumatics, Hydraulics, Hydrostatics, Mechanics, Dynamics, Statics*. — All these words are plural in form; in sense they are either singular or plural.

§ 123. The words just noticed may be called Equivocal forms. In words like *alms* and *riches* the original *s* of the singular is confounded with the *s* the sign of the plural. In the remainder the *s*, the sign of the

plural, is taken for a part of the original singular. This confusion prevents the words in point from having either true singulars, like *new*, *mean*, *pain* ; or true plurals, like *riches-es*, *alms-es*.

If the reason of this confusion be inquired into, it will be found,

1. That all the words in question are of foreign origin.

2. That in sense they are partly singular and partly plural. *Alms* means either a number of separate donations taken severally, or a number of separate donations dealt with as a single act of charity. In the first case the plural, in the second the singular sense predominates.

§ 124. *Plurals not ending in -s.*—Besides the usual plural forms in *s* (*father-s*, *son-s*), there are four other methods in English of expressing a number of objects.

1. By the change of vowel.

2. By the addition of *-en*, or *-n*.

3. By the addition of *-er*, or *-r*.

4. By a combination of some two of the preceding methods.

§ 125. *Plurals formed by a change of vowel.*—This class consists in the present English of the following words :

1. *Man*, singular ; *men*, plural. The vowel *a* changed to the vowel *ee*.

2. *Foot*, sing. ; *feet*, pl. The vowel *oo* (sounded as the *ou* in *could*) changed to the vowel *ee*.

3, 4. *Tooth*, sing. ; *teeth*, pl. : *goose*, sing. ; *geese*, pl. The vowel *oo* (as in *food*) changed to *ee* (as in *feet*).

5, 6. *Mouse*, *louse*, sing. ; *mice*, *lice*, pl. The diph-

thong *ou* changed to the diphthong *i* (as in *night*). The combinate *ce*, used instead of *se*, for the same reason as in *pence* and *dice*, i. e. lest, if written *mise*, *lise*, the words should be pronounced *mize*, *lize*.

§ 126. *Plurals formed by the addition of -en or -n.*—In the present English the word *oxen* is the only specimen of this form in current use. In the older stages of our language the number of words in *-en* was much greater than at present.

hos-en=hose or stockings

shoo-n=shoe-s

ey-ne=eye-s

bischop-en=bishop-s

eldr-en=elder-s

arw-en=arrow-s

scher-en=shire-s

doghtr-en=daughter-s

sustr-en=sister-s

uncl-en=uncle-s

tre-en=tree-s

souldr-en=soldier-s.

§ 127. *Plurals formed by the addition of -er.*—In the A. S. the four following plurals are found; *cealf-ru*=calves, *lamb-ru*=lambs, *egg-ru*=eggs, *cild-ru*=children. The peculiarity of these is that they are formed in *-r*. They are all words of the neuter gender. In certain of the provinces of England the plural form *child-er* still exists. This form, although absent in the current English, is necessary to be observed, since it is the basis of the word *child-r-en*. The origin of the A. S. *r* is not satisfactorily determined.

§ 128. *Plurals formed by a combination, &c.*—Three words occur in this class.

1. *Kyne=cows*; a plural formed from a plural by the addition of *-n*; as *cow, kye, ky-ne*. A combination of methods 1 & 2. (See § 124.) *Kye* is found in provincial English and *cý* in Anglo-Saxon.

2. *Children*; a plural formed from a plural by the addition of *-en*; as *child, child-er, child-er-en=children*. A combination of methods 3 and 2.

3. *Brethren*; a plural formed from a plural by the addition of *-en*; as *brother, brether ? brether-en=brethren*. A combination of methods 1 and 3.

§ 129. *Current and obsolete processes.*—The present is a proper time for exhibiting the difference between the current and the obsolete processes of a language.

By adding the sound of the *s* in *seal* to the word *father*, we change it into *father-s*. Hence the addition of the sound in question is the process by which the word *father* is changed into *fathers*. Such is the nature of a process in language. The process by which *ox* is changed into *ox-en* is the addition of the sound of the syllable *-en*. The words *father* and *ox* are said to be affected by a certain process; and, as they are affected, the language, of which they form a part, is affected also.

In all languages there are two sorts of processes; those that are in operation at a certain period, and those that have ceased to operate.

In illustration of this, let us suppose that from the Latin, Greek, French, or some other language a new word was introduced into the English; and that this word was a substantive of the singular number. Sup-

pose the word was *teck*, and that it meant a sort of *dwelling-house*. In the course of time it would be necessary to use this word in the plural number; and the question would arise as to the manner of forming the plural.

Now there are five simple forms of the plural in English, and consequently five processes by which a singular is converted into a plural :

1. The addition of *-s*, or *-es*.
2. The change of vowel.
3. The addition of *-n*.
4. The addition of *-r*.

Notwithstanding this, it is very certain that the plural of a new word would *not* be formed in *-en* (like *oxen*), nor yet by a change of vowel (like *feet*), nor yet by the addition of *r* (as *childer*), but by the addition of the sound of *s*, *z*, or *ez*, (like *stack-s*, *dog-z*, *loss-ez*, spelt *stack-s*, *dog-s*, *loss-es*).

This shews that the process by which *ox* is changed into *ox-en*, *foot* into *feet*, and *child* into *children*, is no longer in operation; in other words, that it is *obsolete*; whilst the process that changes *father* into *father-s* is still in operation; in other words, *current*.

With each and all of the forms in grammar, as they successively present themselves, we should ask whether they were brought about by a current process, or by an obsolete one.

§ 130. *Case*. — It is necessary to understand the meaning of the following words; Case, Nominative, Accusative, Dative, Objective, and Possessive. This we can do by the examination of certain propositions. (§ 87, &c.) *He is striking him*;—these words form a

proposition, of which *he* is the subject, *is* the copula, and *striking him* the predicate. Now *he* and *him*, although the same parts of speech, of the same gender, and of the same number, appear in different forms. In one there is the presence, in the other the absence, of the letter *m* (*he*, *hi-m*). The reason of this is because the two words are in different cases. The same takes place with *they are striking them*. We cannot say *him is striking he*, nor yet *them is striking they*. We cannot even say *him is striking, them are striking*. If we examine farther, we shall find that *he* and *they* can, by themselves, form terms ; since we can say *he is striking*, and *they are striking* (where *he* alone is the subject) ; and since we can also say *this is he*, and *these are they* (where *he* and *they* alone constitute predicates). On the other hand, *him* and *them* can only form parts of terms ; as *he is striking them*, *they are striking him*. Such is the difference in meaning between the words *he* and *him*.

§ 131. When words differ from each other in meaning in the way that *he* and *him*, *they* and *them* differ, it is the habit more or less of languages to express this difference of meaning by a difference of form. This is done with the words just quoted ; where *he* and *they* take one form, and *him* and *them* another. Differences of this sort, expressed by difference of form, are said to constitute Cases. The word *he* is in one Case, the word *him* in another Case. So it is also with *they* and *them*.

§ 132. A noun is said to be in the Nominative Case when it can by itself constitute a term. The words *he* and *father* are Nominative Cases ; since we can say *he is speaking*, *father is coming*, *this is he*, *this is father*.

§ 133. A noun is said to be in the Accusative Case

when, taken along with a verb, it and the verb together can form a logical term. *The sun* (subject) *is* (copula) *warming him* (predicate). Here the words *warming him* form, by themselves, a term.

§ 134. *He is going London.* In this proposition *he* is the subject, *is* the copula, *going London* the predicate. Now the words *going London* give no sense, that is, the word *London* is not in the same relation to *going*, as *him* (in the sentence just quoted) was to *warming*. Add, however, the word *to* and the sense is good=*He is going to London.* Now the word *London* in this sentence, unlike the words *he* and *him*, has no distinguishing peculiarity of form. If, instead of *London*, it was *London-e* or *London-o*, it would form a case, and that case would be called a Dative.

§ 135. *They fought with a sword.* Here there is the substantive *sword* accompanied by the word *with*. In many languages, however, the word *with* would be omitted, and the word *sword* change its form. The Anglo-Saxon for *they fought with the sword*, was *feoh-ton sweorde*, where no such word as *with* appeared in the sentence, but where the additional syllable *-e* served instead. This constituted in Anglo-Saxon a particular case.

§ 136. *This is a picture of John.* Here there is the substantive *John* accompanied by the word *of*. In many languages, however, the word *of* (or its equivalent) would be omitted, and the word *John* would change its form. This would constitute a fresh case. The meaning of the sentence *this is a picture of John* is *this is a picture of which John is the subject*.

§ 137. *This is John's picture.* Here the word *John's*

is unaccompanied by any word of the nature of *to*, *with*, or *of*. Instead of an accompaniment, it has undergone a change in form. The word *John* has been changed into *John's*. Here a true case is constituted.

Now the meaning of the sentence *this is John's picture*, is, *this is a picture in the possession of John*. The idea of possession is expressed by the addition of the sound of the letter *-s* (*John, John's*). Hence *John's* is an example of what is called the Possessive Case.

§ 138. The words *to*, *with*, *of*, and several other words like them are called Prepositions.

§ 139. The cases in the present English are three :

1. Nominative : *father, he*.
2. Objective : *him*.

The Objective Case in English is equivalent to the Accusative of other languages ; and it is also the case that follows prepositions : as *he struck him* ; *he gave the book to him* ; *he took the book from him*.

The Objective Case and the preposition *to* are equivalents to the Dative Case of other languages.

3. Possessive : *his, father's*.

§ 140. The substantives in English have only two out of the three cases ; as there is no difference in form between a word with the sense of a nominative and a word with the sense of an objective case. We say *the father teaches the son*, or *the son teaches the father*. Hence the words *son* and *father* are either objective or nominative, as the case may be.

§ 141. The Possessive Case singular is formed in the spoken language from the nominative (or objective) case, in the same way as the nominative plural is formed from the singular (See § 113, &c.)

Such is the rule, to which there is only one exception. Words in *f* (§ 120) form their possessive case in the sound of *s* in *seal* ; as *loaf's*, *wife's*, *calf's*, and *leaf's*, &c. sounded *loafce*, *wifce*, *calfce*, *leafce*, and not *loavz*, *wivez*, *calvz*, *leavz*. We say *the wives are good-tempered*, but *the wife's temper is good* ; *the loaves are well-baked*, but *the loaf's baking is good* ; *the calves are well-fed*, but *the calf's feeding is good* ; *the leaves are changing colour*, but *the leaf's colour is changing*.

§ 142. The possessive case singular is distinguished, in the language as it is written, from the nominative (or objective) case plural by the insertion of an ' between the last letter of the original word and the letter *-s* ; as *father*, *father's*, *fathers* ; *the father's son* ; *the fathers are speaking*. This, however, is merely a point of spelling. It does not affect the spoken language.

Although at the present time identical, the possessive case singular and the nominative case plural were originally distinct. The first ended in *-es*, as *endes*, *end's* ; the second in *as*, as *end-as*, *ends*. The ejection of the vowels (*a* and *e*) reduced the two words to the same form.

§ 143. The possessive case plural, when formed at all, is formed, in the spoken language, from the nominative case of the same number, in the same way as the possessive case singular is formed ; that is, by the addition of the sound of *-s* ; as *children*, *children's* ; *oxen*, *oxen's* : *the children's bread* ; *the oxen's horns*.

§ 144. It is rare, however, that in the spoken language the possessive case plural differs at all from the nominative case plural. The reason of this may be seen in § 45. As the nominative plural generally ends in *-s*,

and as the possessive is also formed in *-s*, there would be too many sounds of *s* accumulated in a single word ; *e. g.* the possessive plural of *trees* would be *treesses*, and the possessive plural of *fox* would be *fox-es-es* ; as *the foxeses tails*. Hence, in the *spoken* language, the nominative and possessive cases plural are alike whenever the former ends in the sound of *-s*.

§ 145. In the *written* language the difference between the nominative (or objective) case plural, and the possessive case plural, is expressed by the addition of a ' after the letter *-s* ;—*the trees are in leaf*, but *the trees' leaves are coming out* ; *the ships are in full sail*, but *the ships' sails are spread*.

THE ADJECTIVE.

§ 146. In the present English the Adjectives preserve the same form throughout both numbers, and in all genders. Consequently they are destitute of case ; the objective, the nominative, and the possessive senses being expressed alike.—*A good man, a good woman, a good sword ; the good men, the good women, the good swords ; a good man's son, a good woman's son, a good sword's edge*.

§ 147. The only way in which adjectives change their form is in respect to the Degrees of Comparison.

§ 148. The adjective in its simple form is called the Positive Adjective. From the adjective in its Positive form, are formed 1. the Comparative ; 2. the Superlative Degree.

§ 149. The sign of the Comparative Degree is equivalent to the word *more*. In the word *bright-er*, the syllable *-er* is the sign of the Comparative Degree. The word *bright-er* is equivalent in meaning to *more bright*.

§ 150. The sign of the Superlative Degree is equivalent to the word *most*. In the word *bright-est*, the syllable *-est* is the sign of the Superlative Degree. Also, the word *bright-est* is equivalent in meaning to the words *most bright*.

§ 151. The comparative degree is formed from the positive by the addition of the syllable *-er* : as *cold*, *cold-er* ; *rich*, *rich-er* ; *dry*, *dry-er* ; *low*, *low-er*. This is the manner in which the greater part of the English comparatives are formed.

§ 152. The following positives have no comparative, and also no superlative forms — *good*, *bad*, *evil*, *ill*. There are in the current English no such words as *good-er*, *badd-er*, *evill-er*, *ill-er* ; or *good-est*, *badd-est*, *evill-est*, *ill-est*.

§ 153. The following comparatives (and superlatives) have no positive forms : *worse*, *worst* ; *better*, *best*. There are in the current English no such words as *wor* and *bett*.

§ 154. The Comparative form *elder*.—The positive form *old* has two comparatives : a) the word *old-er* ; b) the word *eld-er*. A knowledge of the following facts will account for the form *elder*. In Anglo-Saxon there were several words, which, beside the addition of the syllable *-re* in the comparative degree, also changed the vowel of the positive.

A.S. Positive.	A. S. Comparative.	A. S. Superlative.	English.
Lang	Leng-re	Leng-est	<i>Long</i>
Strang	Streng-re	Streng-est	<i>Strong</i>
Geong	Gyng-re	Gyng-est	<i>Young</i>
Sceort	Scyrt-re	Scyrt-est	<i>Short</i>
Heah	Hy-rre	Hyh-st	<i>High</i>
Eald	Yld-re	Yld-est	<i>Old</i>

The Anglo-Saxon form *ylð-re* explains the English form *elder*. The word *elder* is often used as a substantive. We say *the elders of the people*.

§ 155. *Latter*.—The word *late* has two forms of the comparative degree ; (1.) *later*, (2.) *latter*. In the first the vowel is the *a* in *fate* ; in the second, that of the *a* in *fat*.

§ 156. *More*.—As late as the reign of Queen Elizabeth we find the positive form *moe*. From this, *more* is regularly derived.

§ 157. *Nether*.—The positive form *nith* is obsolete. It means *low*. From this the comparative form *neth-er* (in A. S. *nīðere*) is regularly derived. In phrases like *the Netherlands*, *the nether regions*, the word *nether* means *low*, or *lower*.

§ 158. *Less*.—This form is not satisfactorily accounted for.

§ 159. *Near*.—This word, although, in meaning, an adjective of the positive degree, is, in respect to its form, a comparative. The *-r* is no part of the original word. The Anglo-Saxon form is *neah* for the positive ; *nea-rre*, *nea-r*, and *ny-r* for the comparative. Hence—

§ 160. *Nearer* is, in respect to its form, a double comparative, *nea-r-er*.

§ 161. *Further*.—This means *more in front* or *more forward*. It is derived from the word *fore*, as found in *foremost*. Besides the change of the vowel from *o* to *u* (*fore*, *fur-th-er*), there is the addition of the sound of *th*. This sound was inserted in an early stage of language. It occurs in the Old High German forms *wor-d-aro*, *for-d-oro*, *wor-d-ero*, *for-d-ar*, *fur-d-ir*, and in the A. S. *forð*, and English *forth*.

§ 162. *Farther*.—This means *more far*, or *more distant*. It is derived from the word *far*, which appears in the following different forms : *fairra*, Mæso-Gothic ; *vërro*, *vër*, *fër*, Old High German ; *feor*, Anglo-Saxon ; *fiarri*, Old Norse. The proper comparative is formed without the *th* ; as *vërr-ôr*, *vërr-ôro*, Old High German. In the English word *far-th-er* the *th* is inserted, either because *far-er* is inharmonious, or from the word being confounded with *fur-th-er*.

§ 163. *Former*.—A comparative from the original word *fore*. For the insertion of the *m* (*for-m-er*) see § 176, 177, 178.

§ 164. *Worse*.—It is necessary to know that in the Mæso-Gothic the comparative degree was formed differently from the comparative degree in Anglo-Saxon, English, and the other allied languages. Instead of being formed by the addition of the sound of *-r*, it was formed by the addition of the sound of *-s* or *-z*.

Positive.	Comparative.	English.
ald	ald-iza	old, old-er
sut	sut-iza	sweet, sweet-er
blind	blind-oza	blind, blind-er

In the latter stages of language this *s* became *r*.

In the word *worse* we may suppose that there is a remnant of the old comparative in *-s* or *-z*. The Mæso-Gothic form is *vâirsiza*, the Anglo-Saxon *vyrsa*.

§ 165. The Superlative degree may be formed from the positive by the addition of the syllable *-est* ; as *cold*, *cold-est* ; *rich*, *rich-est* ; *dry*, *dry-est* ; *low*, *low-est*. This

is the manner in which the greatest part of the English superlatives are formed.

§ 166. *Best, last*.—By comparing these with the words *bett-er* and *lat-er* (or *latt-er*), we discover that the sound of *t* has been lost. The full forms would be *bett-est* and *lat-est*.

§ 167. *Least*.—The nature of this form has not been satisfactorily determined.

§ 168. *First*.—A superlative from the original word *fore*, sup. *fir-st*.

§ 169. *Worst*. — By referring to § 164 we shall see that the comparatives in Mæso-Gothic were formed in *-s* or *-z*. We have also seen that the Mæso-Gothic is supposed to exhibit the oldest forms of the languages allied to the English. Hence it is considered that the oldest process for forming the comparative degree consisted in the addition of *-s* or *-z*; and that it was during some later period that the sound of *-s* or *-z* became changed into that of *-r*.

By referring to § 165 it will be seen that the superlative is formed from the positive by adding *-st*, or *s* followed by *t*. Such is the view that in the present English, and in most of the allied languages, it is necessary to take. It is clear, however, that, if the comparative were formed by adding *s* instead of *r*, a different view might be taken. If the comparative degrees of words like *sweet* and *blind* were *sweet-es* (or *sweet-ez*) and *blind-es* (or *blind-ez*), just as they really were in Mæso-Gothic (§ 164), we might then say that the superlative was formed from the *comparative* by adding *-t*, instead of saying that it was formed from the *positive* by adding *-st*. Now this is the view really taken by J. Grimm,

who, on all these points, is the best authority in Europe ; in which case the word *worst* is a superlative regularly formed from the old comparative form *worse*.

§ 170. *Most*.—See § 186.

§ 171. *Nearest*.—See § 159.

§ 172. *Next*. — The superlative of *nigh*, contracted from *nighest*. The Anglo-Saxon forms were *neah*, *nyh-st*, *neh-st*, *nyh-ste*. In A. S. the letter *h* was pronounced strongly, and sounded like *g* or *k*. This fact is still shewn in the spelling ; as *nigh*. In the word *next* this sound is preserved, slightly changed into that of *k* ; *next*=*nek-st*.

§ 173. *Furthest*.—See § 161.

§ 174. *Farthest*.—See § 162.

§ 175. *Eldest*.—See § 154.

§ 176. *Upmost*, &c. — The common statement concerning words like *upmost* is, that they are compound words, formed by the addition of the word *most* : this, however, is more than doubtful.

The Anglo-Saxon language presents us with the following forms :

Anglo-Saxon.	English.
innema (inn-ema)	inmost (in-m-ost)
ûtema (ût-ema)	outmost (out-m-ost)
siðema (sið-ema)	latest
lætema (læt-ema)	latest
niðema (nið-ema)	nethermost (neth-er-m-ost)
forma (for-ma)	foremost (fore-m-ost)
æftema (aft-ema)	aftermost (aft-er-m-ost)
ufema (uf-ema)	upmost (up-m-ost)
hindema (hind-ema)	hindmost (hind-m-ost)
midema (mid-ema)	midmost (mid-m-ost)

Besides these, there are in the other allied languages words like *fruma*=*first* (M. G.), *aftuma*=*last* (M. G.), *miduma*=*middle* (M. G.)

Now the words in question shew at once that, as far as they are concerned, the *m* that appears in the last syllable of each has nothing to do with the word *most*.

From the words in question there was formed, in Anglo-Saxon, a regular superlative form in the usual manner; viz. by the addition of *-st*; as *æfter-m-est*, *fyr-m-est*, *læte-m-est*, *sið-m-est*, *yfe-m-est*, *ute-m-est*, *inne-m-est*.

Hence, in the present English, the different parts of the syllable *most* (in words like *upmost*) come from different quarters. The *m* is the *m* in the Anglo-Saxon words *innema*, &c.; whilst the *-st* is the common sign of the superlative. Hence, in separating such words as *midmost* into its component parts, we should write

mid-m-ost	<i>not</i>	mid-most
ut-m-ost	—	ut-most
up-m-ost	—	up-most
fore-m-ost	—	fore-most
in-m-ost	—	in-most
hind-m-ost	—	hind-most
out-m-ost	—	out-most

§ 177. In certain words the syllable *m-ost* is added to a word already ending in *er*; that is, already marked with the sign of the comparative degree.

neth-er-m-ost		hind-er-m-ost
utt-er-m-ost		out-er-m-ost
upp-er-m-ost		inn-er-m-ost

§ 178. Having accounted for the *m* in the words just mentioned, we can account for the *m* in the word *former*. *Former* (*for-m-er*) is a regular comparative from the Anglo-Saxon *forma* (*for-m-a*).

PRONOUNS.

§ 179. Sections 102, 103 should now be carefully read over, and especial attention directed to the words "*name of an object*." Section 91 should also be read.

A substantive is the name of some object; as *horse*, *man*, *father*, *son*, *goodness*, *animal*.

As the name of some object, a substantive is capable of forming both the subject and predicate of propositions.

But, besides the names of objects, there are other words capable of forming both the subjects and predicates of propositions.

These form a third class of nouns, and are called Pronouns.

I, *thou*, *we*, *ye*, *he*, *she*, *they*, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, &c. are Pronouns.

None of these are the *names* of objects.

The word *I* taken by itself is not the name of one object more than another. It varies in meaning with the person speaking. When *William* says *I*, it means *William*. When *Thomas* says *I*, it means *Thomas*. It denotes the speaker, whoever he may be; but it is not the fixed name of any speaker whatever.

The word *thou* taken by itself is not the name of one object more than another. It varies in meaning with the person spoken to. When *thou* is said to *William*,

it means *William*. When *thou* is said to *Thomas*, it means *Thomas*. It denotes the person spoken to, whoever he may be; but it is not the fixed name of any person spoken to in particular.

The word *we* taken by itself is not the name of any persons in particular. It denotes the parties who are speaking; and, when a different party speaks, it denotes different persons.

The same principle applies to the word *ye*.

The word *he* taken by itself is not the name of one object more than another. It varies in meaning according to the person spoken of. When *he* is said in speaking of *William*, it means *William*. When *he* is said in speaking of *Thomas*, it means *Thomas*.

The same view applies to *she*, *it*, and *they*.

The word *this* taken by itself is not the name of one object more than another. It varies in meaning according to the object spoken of. When applied to an object near one person, it means one thing. When applied to an object near another person, it means something else.

The same applies to *that*, *these*, and to several other words.

As none of the words above are the names of one object more than another, they are not *names* at all.

Notwithstanding this, they can, each and all, form both the subjects and predicates of propositions; as, *I am he*, *thou art he*, *he is he*, *we are they*, *ye are they*, *they are they*, *I am the man*, *the man is he*, *this is the man*, *these are the women*, *the books are these*, &c.

Words that can form by themselves both the subjects

and predicates of propositions, and yet are not the names of objects, are called Pronouns.

§ 180. The first class of pronouns consists of what are called the true Personal Pronouns. These are of two sorts. 1. Those of the First Person, *viz.* *I, me, we.* 2. Those of the Second Person, *viz.* *thou, thee, ye.*

Pronouns of the First Person. — *I* undergoes no change of form. It occurs only as a nominative case. For its other cases the words *me* and *my* are substitutes.

Me and *my* were originally the same word (*me, meh,* or *mec* in A.S.), and consequently constituted one and the same case, *viz.* the accusative. At present they form two cases; *me* being an objective, and *my* a possessive case. Such are the pronouns for the first person singular.

§ 181. Those of the first person plural are, for the nominative, *we*; possessive, *our*; objective, *us*. Although much altered, the words *we, our,* and *us* are modifications of one and the same original form. The Danish forms are *vi, vor* = *we, our*; and in A.S. we find *user* and *ure* equally.

§ 182. *Personal Pronouns of the Second Person.* — Nominative, *thou*; possessive, *thy*; objective, *thee*. *Thee* and *thy* were originally one and the same word (*pe, peh, pec,* A.S.), and consequently constituted one and the same case, *viz.* the accusative. At present they form two cases; *thee* being an objective, and *thy* a possessive case. Such are the pronouns for the second person singular.

§ 183. Those of the second person plural are: N. *ye*, possess. *your*, object. *you*.

The Demonstrative Pronouns. — The Demonstrative Pronouns derive their name from the Latin word *demonstro*, *I shew*, or *point out*. The words *this* and *that* are used in pointing out objects, and for that reason are called Demonstrative. All the pronouns included in this class are not, in the present stage of the English language, so thoroughly demonstrative as the words *this* and *that* (*this man*, *that horse*). Still they are more or less of that character.

§ 184. The Demonstrative Pronouns are of three sorts: 1. Demonstrative Pronouns partaking of the nature of Personal Pronouns; *he*, *she*. 2. True Demonstrative Pronouns; *this*, *that*. 3. The Definite Article *the*.

§ 185. 1. *Demonstrative Pronouns partaking of the nature of Personal Pronouns.* — These are generally called Personal Pronouns of the Third Person. The reasons for changing their denomination are given in "The English Language," § 251. Their number is two: 1. *he*; 2. *she*.

He. — In the present stage of the English language the declension of this word is defective. It consists at present of the following forms. (1.) *It*; a true form for the neuter gender, of which the letter *t* was the sign. The form in A. S. was *hit* (*hi-t*). The loss of the *h* has done much to disguise the nature of the present word (*it*), which is a true formation from *he*. (2.) *Him*, originally a dative common to the masculine and neuter genders; now an objective case, and restricted to masculines only (*hi-m*). (3.) *His* (*hi-s*) now and originally a true possessive. In A. S., however, it was common to both the masculine and neuter genders; the word *its* (*i-t-s*)

being, in that stage of the language, unknown. (4.) *Her* (*he-r*), originally *hire*, or *hyre*, used in A. S. either as a dative or a possessive; used in modern English as a possessive (*her book*), or an objective (*he led her*). (5.) *Its* a possessive irregularly formed. The *t* being mistaken for an original part of the word, the form *i-t-s* was derived from *it*. The *t*, however, as has been already stated, was no original part of the word, but the sign of the neuter gender. The Anglo-Saxon declension of the word *he* was as follows. The parts that are absent from the present English are printed in Italics.

	M.	F.	N.	Plural, all Genders.
<i>Nom.</i>	he	<i>heo</i>	hit	<i>hi</i>
<i>Poss.</i>	his	hire	his	<i>hira</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	him	hire	him	<i>him</i>
<i>Acc. or Obj.</i>	<i>hine</i>	<i>hi</i>	hit	<i>hi</i>

Obs. The whole of the plural forms is lost.

She—occurs only as a nominative case, undergoing no change of form. For its other cases the word *her* is employed in the singular, and the words *they*, *their*, and *them* in the plural number.

§ 186. 2. *True Demonstrative Pronouns*.—Under this class come the two words *this* and *that*.

§ 187. *This*.—This word appears in two forms: nominative singular, *this*; nominative plural, *these*. In A. S. it was declined as fully as the word *he*. (See § 185.)

§ 188. *That*.—Originally a true form for the neuter singular (nomin. and objective), of which *t* (as in *it*) was the sign, *tha-t*. In A. S. it was declined as fully as the word *this* (see § 187). At present its declension is

limited. In the singular number it is undeclined. In the plural it takes two distinct forms.

1. *First form*.—Nomin. and objective plural, *those*. This is the plural of *that* when it preserves its true demonstrative sense, and when it is opposed to *these*; e. g. *these men, those horses*.

2. *Second form*.—Nom. *they*, poss. *their*, object. *them*. This is the plural of *that* when it is used instead of the lost plural forms of *he* (see § 185), and takes the sense of the demonstrative pronouns partaking of the nature of personal pronouns. (See § 185.)

§ 189. 3. *The Definite Article*.—*The* (*the man, the men*) undeclined.

§ 190. *The true Possessive Pronouns*.—*This is my book; this is a book of mine*. In each of these propositions we make an assertion as to the nature of a *book*. We state what the book is in regard to ownership or possession. We assert that it is *my book*, that it is a book belonging to *me*, that it is a book of *mine* rather than of any other person. In this case the words *my* and *mine* denote possession; and, as they are pronouns, they may be called Possessive Pronouns. The same applies to *thy* and *thine*, *her* and *hers*, *our* and *ours*, *your* and *yours*, *their* and *theirs*. *This is thy book; this is a book of thine*; and so on throughout.

Between, however, the words *my, thy, our, your, her,* and *their* on one side, and *mine, thine, ours, yours, hers,* *theirs* on the other side, there is the following difference. *My, thy, our, your, her,* and *their* signify possession, because they are possessive *cases*. They cannot, however, be called true Possessive Pronouns, because it is only in one particular form that they have that cha-

racter; *me, thee, we, ye, they* have no power of the kind. *Mine, thine, ours, yours, hers, theirs* signify possession for a different reason. They partake of the nature of adjectives, and in all the allied languages are declined as such.

In opposition to the words *my, thy, our, your, her, their*, they may be called the true Possessive Pronouns. Respecting the difference between these two classes of words, more may be seen in the Syntax. Those who are familiar with the classical languages may at once comprehend the distinction. *My* and *thy* are the equivalents of *mei* and *tui*; *mine* and *thine*, of *meus* (*mea, meum*), and *tuus* (*tua, tuum*); and, like *meus* (*mea, meum*); *tuus* (*tua, tuum*), *mine* and *thine* were once declined. This last fact is conclusive as to their adjectival character.

§ 191. In treating of the structure of the true possessive pronouns, we must ask the following questions.

1. As to the kind of pronoun from which they are derived? *Mine* and *thine*, *ours* and *yours*, are derived from the true personal pronouns of the first and second persons respectively; *hers* and *theirs* from the demonstrative pronouns partaking of the nature of personal pronouns.

2. As to the number from which they are derived? *Ours*, *yours*, and *theirs* are derived from the plural forms *our*, *your*, and *their*.

§ 192. After this we must take the whole of the true possessive pronouns, six in number, and divide them into two classes.

1. The possessive pronouns in *-n*. *Mine, thine*.

2. The possessive pronouns in *-s*. *Ours, yours, hers, theirs*.

§ 193. *First class.*—*Mine, thine.* In these forms the *-n* is no part of the original word; *mi-n, thi-n.* Whether it had originally the power of a case, and afterwards became adjectival, is undetermined. The forms in *-n*, confined to the true personal pronouns, and, in them, to the singular number, is of great antiquity. They occur in the A. S. as *mín* and *þín*, and by some grammarians are dealt with as cases. Like *meus* and *tuus* in Latin, they were declined; *e. g. mín, míne, minne, minum, mínra.*

Second class.—Forms in *-s*—comprising the possessives derived from the demonstrative pronouns partaking of the nature of personal ones, and from the true personal pronouns *when in the plural number.*—*hers, theirs, ours, yours*; or, *her-s, their-s, our-s, your-s*; or, (the analysis being carried farther still,) *he-r-s, thei-r-s, ou-r-s, you-r-s.* Although adjectival in meaning, these forms originated as cases; and that since the Anglo-Saxon period. The *-s* is the *s* of the genitive case; so that, in these words, we have a case formed from a case.

The true possessive pronouns may also be called the Absolute Possessive Pronouns.

§ 194. *The Interrogative Pronouns.*—If we say, *who is this? whose book is this? what is this? whom do you speak to?* we ask so many questions. The Latin word for *to question* is *interrogare.* The words *who, whom, what, whose* are pronouns. Being used in asking questions, they are called Interrogative Pronouns.

What, whose, whom are all cases of the word *who*, which is declined like *he.* Nominative masculine, *who*; nominative neuter, *what* (*wha-t*); possessive, *whose*

(*who-s*); objective, *whom* (*who-m*). For the true nature of *which*, see § 200.

§ 195. It may be seen that the pronouns have more cases than the substantives. Besides the possessive forms in *-s*, such as *hi-s*, *who-se*, *our-s*, &c., there is a distinction between the nominative and objective forms. Nom. *he*, *they*, *who*. Object. *him*, *them*, *whom*, *her*.

§ 196. It may also be seen that in the pronouns are preserved vestiges of a grammatical expression of gender. *I-t*, *tha-t*, and *wha-t* are true neuter signs; *t* being the original sign of the neuter gender. In the present Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, and Icelandic, and in the old Norse and Mæso-Gothic, all neuter adjectives end in *-t*.

§ 197. With three exceptions the pronouns exhibited above are the only ones whereof there is any declension. The rest are wholly undeclined, except

§ 198. 1. *One*.—When the word means *people at large*, and so has a general signification, it is declined like a substantive. Nominative singular, *one*; possessive, *one's*; nom. plur. *ones*. Examples: *one is apt to love one's self*; *my wife and little ones are well*.

§ 199. With respect to the word *one*, it must be observed that it has nothing to do with the number *one*, or 1. It is derived from the French word *on* (as in *on dit*), which in its older forms is *om*, *omme*, *homme*; and which originates in the Latin word *homo* = *a man*. Instead of *one says*, the Germans at the present moment say, *man sagt*, or, *man says*.

2. *Other*.—Declined like *father*. *This is that man's*, *that is the other's*. *The others are coming*.

3. *Self*.—Declined like *leaf*. Plural, *ourselves*, *your-*

selves. The genitive form *self's* is not found, although there is no reason why it should not occur in phrases like the following. Question:—*Are you sure this is your own property?* Answer:—*Yes! I am sure it is my own self's*.

§ 200. The present is a proper place for explaining the true nature of the word *which*. The general opinion is that it is the neuter of *who*. Now it is a neuter in *meaning* only; and that not always. The true neuter form of *who* is *wha-t*. *Which* is a compound word, formed out of the word *who*, and the word *like*. Thus we have in M. G. *hvé-leiks*; O. H. G. *huē-lih*; A. S. *hwi-lc*; Old Frisian, *hwe-lik*; German, *we-lch*; Lowland Scotch, *whi-lk*; English, *whi-ch* (the *l* being softened down and lost).

The same is the case with the word *such*. M. G. *sva-leiks*; O. H. G. *sô-lih*; Old Saxon, *su-llic*; A. S. *swi-lc*; German, *sol-ch*; English, *su-ch*.

THE NUMERALS.

§ 201. *Cardinal Numbers*.—It rarely happens that the cardinal numbers (*one, two, three, four, &c.*) are in any language declined throughout. The word *one* is naturally singular, so that it has no need of taking any particular form in order to distinguish it from a plural. In like manner, the rest of the numbers are naturally plural, so that words like *five* and *six* have no need of taking any particular form to distinguish them from singulars. These facts do away the necessity of any forms expressive of number. The expression of case and gender is not so naturally superfluous: and, hence, in many languages the earlier numerals are declined.

In the present English all the cardinals are undeclined. One antiquated word, however, preserves a trace of an earlier Anglo-Saxon declension. The word *twain* was originally the accusative masculine of *twá* (*twá-n*, A. S. *twegen*). It may be interesting to be informed that the original accusative form in A. S. for adjectives and pronouns in the masculine gender and singular number ended in *-n*, or *-ne*, and that the original accusative form of *he* and *who* were not *him* and *hwam* (*hi-m*, *hwæ-m*), but *hine* and *hwæne* (*hi-ne*, *hwæ-ne*). The forms in *m* that are at present current as objective cases (*him* and *whom*) were originally datives. *Him* in A. S. meant *to him*, and *hwæm* in A. S. meant *to whom*. The word *twain*, then, is of interest inasmuch as it is the only word wherein the original A. S. accusative ending is preserved.

§ 202. *Ordinal Numbers*.—The cardinal number *one* has no corresponding ordinal form derived from it. The word *first* is a superlative form derived from the root *fore*. There is no such word as *on-th*.

The cardinal number *two* has no corresponding ordinal form derived from it. The word *second* is derived from the Latin *secundus*. There is no such word as *two-th*.

The remainder of the cardinal numerals have corresponding ordinals derived from them.

Cardinal.		Ordinal.
Three .	.	Thir-d.
Four .	.	Four-th.
Five .	.	Fif-th.
Six .	.	Six-th.
Seven .	.	Seven-th, &c. &c.

The ordinal form is derived from the cardinal by the addition of the sound *th*,¹ subject to slight variations. In *third*, *th* becomes *d*. In *fifth*, the vowel is shortened. In *third* there is a transposition of the letter *r*.

THE VERB.

§ 203. The verbs fall into two divisions. The first contains the Verb Substantive. The second contains the Common Verbs, or, speaking simply, the Verbs.

§ 204. The §§ 93, 95, should now be read attentively. Words that, by themselves, can form the copulas of propositions, are called Verbs Substantive. *I am speaking, thou art writing, he is singing, she is playing, it is burning, we are speaking, ye are singing, they are playing, summer is coming, winter is departing, the horses are feeding, the sun is shining brightly, the rain is falling fast this morning, I was moving, we were speaking, &c.* In all these sentences the words *am, art, is, are, was, and were*, constitute by themselves copulas: that is, they connect the subjects (*I, thou, he, she, it, we, ye, they, winter, the horses, the sun, the rain, I, and we*) with the predicates (*speaking, writing, singing, playing, burning, coming, departing, feeding, shining brightly, falling fast this morning, moving, speaking*). Consequently they are all verbs substantive. The verbs substantive, in English, in their different forms, are—

1. *Be; beest,*² *being, been; or be, be-est, be-ing, bee-n.*
2. *Am; art, are; or a-m, a-rt, a-re.*

¹ As in *thin*.

² Obsolete.—*If thou beest he.*—MILTON.

3. *Was* ; *wast*, *were*, *wert* ; or *w-as*, *w-as-t*, *w-ere*, *w-er-t*.

§ 205. Before we consider the nature of the Common Verbs, or Verbs properly so called, it is necessary to turn to § 92, and observe the words in the third column.

Now, if we take any of these words, we shall find that it expresses an *action*. So also *speaking*, *barking*, *growing*, *mouldering*, *cracking*, *crumbling*, *hunting*, *shooting*, *killing*, *living*, *dying*, are all words in which there is the notion of *doing* something, or of *action*. This is not the case with the words in the two first columns. In them there is no notion of *action*.

Now the words in the third column, and words like them (*growing*, *mouldering*, &c.) are adjectives of a peculiar sort. They are called Participles. A participle can constitute a predicate ; as *I am speaking*, &c. In this respect they agree with the common adjective. But, besides this, they convey the notion of *actions* ; which adjectives do not.

§ 206. Refer to § 204. Take any one of the propositions contained in that section ; as *I am speaking*, &c. Omit the copula, or verb substantive (*am*). The remainder is *I speaking* ; which is nonsense.

Reject, however, from the word *speaking* (*speak-ing*) the syllable *-ing*, and so reduce the word *speak-ing* to *speak*. The remainder is *I speak*, words which constitute a proposition, and make good sense.

§ 207. The fact is, that the word *speak* constitutes at once both copula and predicate, and is equivalent to the words *am speaking* in the proposition *I am speaking*.

Also, the word *speak* combines the powers of the verb substantive (*am*) and of the participle (*speaking*).

Words that, by themselves, can form both a copula and a predicate at once are called Common Verbs, or Verbs properly so called, or, simply, Verbs. They can always be resolved into a verb substantive and a participle.

§ 208. Participles are, therefore, akin both to the verbs and the adjectives. In the formation of propositions they play the part of adjectives, but in respect to their meaning they are allied to the verbs; inasmuch as they convey the notion of action.

Every participle presupposes a verb. And every verb can be reduced to the verb substantive and a participle.

§ 209. There are certain other nouns that denote action, and are the names of persons who perform some action, or agents. These are related to the substantive and verb, just as the participle is related to the adjective and verb. They are called Verbals.

hunt-er=a man who hunts.

eat-er=a man who eats.

drink-er=a man who drinks.

sleep-er=a man who sleeps.

feed-er=a man who feeds.

grind-er=a man who grinds, &c.

§ 210. The verb is by most grammarians considered the most important of the parts of speech. From this view it derives its name. The Latin word *verbum* means *word*; and the verb has been held pre-eminently the *word* in language.

§ 211. The verbs must be considered in respect to (1.) Person, (2.) Number, (3.) Tense, (4.) Mood. Besides this, it must be remembered that they can take the form of Participles.

§ 212. *Person*.—In the words *thou speakest*, the pronoun *thou* is of the Second Person, and the verb *speak*, when taken along with it, has attached to it the syllable *-est*. The syllable *-est* is an ending or termination. It shews that the word is taken with a pronoun of the second person. It is called the Sign of the Second Person; and the word *speakest* is said to be in the Second Person. The Sign of the Third Person is *-s*; as *he speak-s*.

§ 213. *Number*.—When we say *he read-s*, we speak of an action (the action of *reading*) performed by one person, or object. In this case the verb is Singular. But, when we say *they read*, we speak of an action (the action of *reading*) performed by more than one person, or object. In this case the verb is Plural.

There is sometimes a distinction of form between verbs singular and verbs plural; in which case there is said to be a Sign of Number.

§ 214. *Tense*.—When we use the word *call*, we speak of a certain *action*, namely, the action of *calling*. When we speak of the action that is taking place at the very time when we are speaking, we say *I call, thou call-est, he call-s, we call, ye call, they call*. But, if we speak of the action as having taken place at some other time which has passed by, we say *I call-ed, thou call-ed-st, he call-ed, we call-ed, ye call-ed, they call-ed*. Now the forms *call* and *call-ed* are different. The form *call* denotes Present, the form *call-ed* Past Time. The presence of the additional sound *-d* is the Sign of Past Time;

the absence of that sound is the Sign of Present Time. A word with the sign of either past, present, or any other (such as future) time, is said to be in a certain *Tense*. The word *call* is in the Present, the word *call-ed* in the Past *Tense*.

§ 215. *Mood*.—When we say *John walks*, we state something as a fact. We say positively that the action of walking is going on.

When we say *John ! walk !* we give orders for something to take place ; *viz.* the action of walking. We do not say that the action of walking is positively taking place, or going to take place. We only express a wish that it should take place.

When we say *if John walk fast, he will fatigue himself*, we use the word *walk* in a third sense. We do not say that the action of walking is taking place, or has taken place, or will take place. Neither do we express a wish that it may take place. We say, however, that, *if* it do take place, something else will take place also ; *viz.* that the person who causes it to take place (John) will fatigue himself (that is, the fatigue will take place). Now in this case there is the idea of conditions and contingencies. John's fatigue is contingent upon his walking fast ; that is, it is the fast walking that John's fatigue depends on. The fast walking is the condition of John's fatigue.

In the phrase *John begins to walk*, the word *walk* is in a different sense from any of the preceding.

We shall now find on looking back that the word *walk* has appeared in four different senses. It has, indeed, all along expressed the action *to walk* ; but it has con-

veyed the idea of it under four different aspects, or *manners*.

These different aspects, or manners, are called *Moods*, from the Latin word *modus* = *a manner*. In many languages the moods have particular signs, just like the tenses. In English the distinction between the moods is very slight.

§ 216. In the sentence *John walks*, the word *walk* is in the Indicative Mood. It indicates the fact of John's walking.

In the command *John ! walk !* the word *walk* is in the Imperative Mood. The word Imperative is derived from the Latin word *impero* = *I command*.

In the sentence *if John walk fast, he will fatigue himself*, the word *walk* is in the Conjunctive Mood. In this case there is generally *conjoined* to the verb some word like *if, although, &c.* From this fact the mood is called Conjunctive; from the Latin word *conjungo* = *I conjoin, or join together*.

In the sentence *John begins to walk*, the verb *walk* is subordinate to the word *begins*. It merely states what the action is that *John begins to perform* (*viz. the action of walking*). This it does and nothing more. It does not fix or *define* the manner of the action. It does not determine whether it really takes place, or will take place under certain conditions. All this is done by the other verb (*begins*). This mood defines nothing, and is therefore called the Infinitive Mood.

§ 217. We now inquire how far the different (1.) Persons, (2.) Numbers, (3.) Tenses, and (4.) Moods are expressed by corresponding signs.

PERSON.

§ 218. *Sign of the First Person Singular.*—Found in one verb only. In the word *am* (*a-m*) the *m* is no part of the original word. It is the sign of the First Person Singular Present Indicative. Beyond this, no word in English has in any mood, tense, or number, any form of termination for the First Person.

§ 219. *Sign of the Second Person Singular.*—The usual sign of the Second Person Singular is *-est* or *-st*; as *thou call-est*. It occurs both in the present and past tenses; *thou called'st*, *thou spakest*. Like the pronoun *thou*, it is rarely used except in formal discourse.

§ 220. *Sign of the Third Person Singular.*—The usual sign of the Third Person Singular is the sound of the syllable *-eth*, or of the letters *s*, *z* (or *es*); as *he call-eth*, or *he call-s*. The first of these two forms is only used in formal discourse. The Third Person is only found in the indicative mood, and in the present tense. We cannot say *if he speaketh*, or *if he speaks*; neither can we say *he called-th*, or *he called-s*, *he spak-eth*, or *he spake-s*.

Whether the addition be the sound of *s* in *seal* (as *hit-s*), of *z* in *zeal* (as *call-z*), or of the syllable *ez* (as *hiss-ez*), depends upon the same circumstances as the use of the same sounds in the possessive cases, and the nominatives plural.

§ 221. Throughout the whole of the plural there are no signs of the persons, or change of form: *we call*, *ye call*, *they call*; *we called*, *ye called*, *they called*.

In respect to Person the following peculiarities deserve notice.

§ 222. *Forms sungest and sangest.*—In Anglo-Saxon, the word *sing*, and a great number of words like it, took in the past tense a different vowel for the second person from the one found in the first and third; *e. g.* *Ic sang* (*I sang*), *he sang* (*he sang*), were the forms for the first and third persons singular; where the vowel was *a*. But the *second* person singular was *þu sunge* (*thou sungest*); where the vowel was *u*. In this way were conjugated (amongst others) the following verbs: *swim*, *begin*, *sing*, *spring*, *ring*, *sink*, *drink*, *shrink*, *run*. In all these words the second singular of the past tense was formed in *u*; whilst the first and third persons took the vowel *a*; *e. g.* *þu swumme*, *þu on-gunne*, *þu sunge*, *þu sprunge*, *þu runge*, *þu sunce*, *þu drunce*, *þu runne*, = *thou swummet*, *thou begunnest*, *thou sungest*, &c. &c.; and, on the other hand, *Ic* (or *he*) *swam*, *Ic* (or *he*) *ongann*, *Ic* (or *he*) *sang*, *Ic* (or *he*) *sprang*, *Ic* (or *he*) *rang*, *Ic* (or *he*) *sank*, *Ic* (or *he*) *drank*, *Ic* (or *he*) *rann* = *I* (or *he*) *swam*, *I* (or *he*) *began*, &c., &c. There were no such forms in Anglo-Saxon as *Ic* (or *he*) *swumm*, or as *þu swamme*. Now this distinction of person is not adhered to in the present English. It is the author's opinion that the writers and speakers who say *I* (or *he*) *sang*, say also *thou sangest*; whilst those who say *thou sungest*, say also *I* (or *he*) *sung*.

§ 223. *Second Persons not ending in -st.*—In five words the sign of the second person singular is not *-est* (as in *read-est*), but *-t*; as *ar-t*, *was-t*, *wer-t*, *shal-t*, *wil-t*: *thou ar-t*, *thou was-t*, *thou wer-t*, *thou shal-t*, *thou wil-t*. There are no such words as *ar-est*, *was-est*, *wer-est*, *shall-est*; and the word *will-est*, when used at all, is different in sense from *wil-t*.

Now in the Mæso-Gothic and the Old Norse, the second singular of a certain class of *preterites* ended in *-t* : as *svór-t* (*swor-est*), *gráip-t* (*griped'st*), M. G. ; *brann-t* (*burn-ed-st*), *gaf-t* (*gav-est*), Old Norse.

Again, in the same languages ten words, of which *skal* (*shall*) is one, were never formed in respect to their persons like *present*, but always like *preterite* tenses :

Mæso-Gothic.

Singular.	Plural.
1. skal.	skul-um.
2. skal-t.	skul-up.
3. skall.	skul-un.

Old Norse.

Singular.	Plural.
1. skall.	skul-um.
2. skal-t.	skul-uð.
3. skal.	skul-u.

It is most probable that the *-t* in *ar-t*, *was-t*, *wer-t*, *shal-t*, *wil-t*, is the *-t* of the second singular preterite in the Mæso-Gothic and the Old Norse.

NUMBERS.

§ 224. In the words *a-m*, *speak-est*, *speak-eth* (or *speak-s*), the sounds of *-m*, *-est*, and *-eth* (or *-s*), respectively denote a difference of person. They also denote a difference of number, since they are found only in the singular. But this they do in a secondary way. They are truly the signs of *persons* : the only real sign expressive of a difference of number occurs in the past tense of the indicative mood of the verb substantive.

Singular.	Plural.
I was.	We <i>were</i> .
Thou wast.	Ye <i>were</i> .
He was.	They <i>were</i> .

§ 225. *Sung* and *sang*.—By referring to § 222, we shall see that in Anglo-Saxon the vowel in the second person singular in the preterite of words like *sing* (*sang*, *sung*,) was different from that in the first (*ic sang*, *þu sunge*). The same took place in respect to the numbers; e. g.

Ic <i>arn</i> , I <i>ran</i> .	We <i>urnon</i> , we <i>run</i> .
Ic <i>ongan</i> , I <i>began</i> .	We <i>ongunnon</i> , we <i>begun</i> .
Ic <i>span</i> , I <i>span</i> .	We <i>spunnon</i> , we <i>spun</i> .
Ic <i>sang</i> , I <i>sang</i> .	We <i>sungon</i> , we <i>sung</i> .
Ic <i>swang</i> , I <i>swang</i> .	We <i>swungon</i> , we <i>swung</i> .
Ic <i>dranc</i> , I <i>drank</i> .	We <i>druncon</i> , we <i>drunk</i> .
Ic <i>sanc</i> , I <i>sank</i> .	We <i>suncon</i> , we <i>sunk</i> .
Ic <i>swam</i> , I <i>swam</i> .	We <i>swummon</i> , we <i>swum</i> .
Ic <i>sprang</i> , I <i>sprang</i> .	We <i>sprungon</i> , we <i>sprung</i> .
Ic <i>rang</i> , I <i>rang</i> .	We <i>rungon</i> , we <i>rung</i> .

There are no such forms in A. S. as *ic* (or *he*) *swumm*, or as *we* (*ge* or *hi*) *swammon*. Now this distinction of person is not adhered to in the present English. It is the author's opinion that the writers and speakers who say *I* (or *he*) *sang*, say also *we* (*ye* or *they*) *sang*; whilst those who say *we* (*ye* or *they*) *swum*, say also *I* (or *he*) *swum*.

MOODS.

§ 226. The only instance in English of a verb in one mood being distinguished from a verb in another by

any positive sign, occurs in the conjugation of the word *was*.

<i>Indicative.</i>		<i>Subjunctive.</i>	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
I <i>was</i> .	We <i>were</i> .	If I <i>were</i> .	If we <i>were</i> .
Thou <i>wast</i> .	Ye <i>were</i> .	If thou <i>wert</i> .	If ye <i>were</i> .
He <i>was</i> .	They <i>were</i> .	If he <i>were</i> .	If they <i>were</i> .

§ 227. In the sentence *John walks*, as compared with the sentence *if John walk he will be fatigued*, there is a difference between the words *walk-s* (indicative), and the word *walk* (conjunctive). The conjunctive *omits* the sign of the person (*-s*). This, however, is only a negative sign, and consequently scarcely constitutes a positive distinction in form between the two moods.

TENSES.

§ 228. The tenses in English are two: 1. the Present, as *I call, I speak*; 2. the Past, as *I called, I spoke*. The past tense is also called the Preterite, from the Latin word *præteritus*=*gone by* or *past*.

§ 229. *Participles*. — The participles in English are two: 1. the Present Participle Active, as *call-ing, speak-ing*; 2. the Past Participle Passive, as *call-ed, spok-en*.

§ 230. The English verbs fall into two classes, according to the forms of their past tense and their past participles. Instead of Class, the grammarians often say Conjugation; so that the verbs may be said to fall into two Conjugations.

THE STRONG CONJUGATION.

§ 231. The Conjugation of verbs that demands the first notice is called the Strong Conjugation. The meaning of the word *Strong* as applied to the conjugation of verbs may be seen § 255.

Verbs of the strong conjugation form their past (or preterite) tense from the present by simply changing the vowel. Thus *sang* is formed from *sing* by changing *i* into *a*, *fell* (the past tense) from *fall* (the present tense) by changing the *a* into *e*; and so on throughout: *speak*, *spake* or *spoke*; *steal*, *stole*; *drink*, *drank*; *draw*, *drew*, &c.

§ 232. Verbs of the strong conjugation form their participle passive by the addition of *-en*, generally accompanied by a change of vowel, as *speak*, *spok-en*.

§ 233. Sometimes the *-en* in the present language is omitted, as *find*, *found*. In all these cases it must especially be remembered that this rejection of the *-en* occurs only in the later stages of our language. In words like *found* the original participle was *funden*, and so on throughout. In many cases both forms occur: as *drink*; participle *drunken*, or *drunk*.

§ 234. The vowel of the participle is often, though not always (*took*, *taken*), the same as the vowel of the past tense; as *spoke*, *spoken*. When this is the case, and when, at the same time, the *-en* (or *-n*) is rejected, the past tense and the participle passive have the same form; as *I found*, *I have found*. In this case it seems as if the past tense was used for the participle. Now it is only in a few words,¹ and in the most modern forms of

¹ *Hold*, present; *held*, past; *holden*, obsolete part.; *held*, part.

our language, that this is really done. The participle is naturally formed independently of the preterite.

§ 235. The participles passive are exhibited in the fourth and fifth columns of the ensuing list. The fourth column contains the full participles in *-en* (many of which are more or less obsolete), the fifth those where the *n* is omitted. The asterisk (*) denotes that the word is more or less obsolete. The note of interrogation (?) denotes that it is a matter of doubt whether the word to which it is attached be sufficiently established by usage.

§ 236. Several strong verbs have two forms of the past tense: as *spake, spoke*; *sang, sung*. Some of these double forms are capable of explanation. See §§ 225 and 222.

§ 237. The past tenses of the strong verbs are exhibited in the second and third columns of the ensuing list; the second column being appropriated to those that have two forms. The asterisk (*) denotes that the word to which it is attached is obsolete. The letter (*p*) indicates that the word to which it is attached is explained in §§ 225 and 222.

This letter stands for *plural*, and it is supposed that the forms by the side of which it appears are derived from the plural forms as exhibited in § 225, or from (what is the same thing) those of the second person singular as exhibited in § 222.

PRESENT.	PAST TENSE. (First form.)	PAST TENSE. (Second form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Full form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Shortened form.)
fall	fell	. .	fallen	. .
befall	befell	. .	befallen	. .
hold	held	. .	holden	held
draw	drew	. .	drawn	. .

P <small>RESENT</small> .	P <small>AST TENSE</small> . (First form.)	P <small>AST TENSE</small> . (Second form.)	P <small>ARTICIPLE</small> . (Full form.)	P <small>ARTICIPLE</small> . (Shortened form.)
shew	shew	. .	shown	. .
slay	slew	. .	slain	. .
fly	flew	. .	flown	. .
blow	blew	. .	blown	. .
crow	crew	. .	crown	. .
know	knew	. .	known	. .
grow	grew	. .	grown	. .
throw	threw	. .	thrown	. .
let	let	let
beat	beat	. .	beaten	beat
heave	*hove	. .	*hoven	
cleave	*clove	*clave	cloven	.
weave	wove	. .	woven	. .
freeze	froze	. .	frozen	. .
steal	stole	*stale	stolen	. .
speak	spoke	*spake	spoken	. .
swear	swore	*sware	sworn	. .
bear	bore	*bare	borne	. .
bear	bore	*bare	born	. .
forbear	forbore	. .	forborne	. .
tear	tore	*tare	torn	? tore
shear	*shore	. .	shorn	. .
wear	wore	*ware	worn	. .
break	broke	brake	broken	? broke
shake	shook	. .	shaken	. .
take	took	. .	taken	. .
forsake	forsook	. .	forsaken	. .
stand	stood	stood
understand	understood	understood
. .	quoth
get	got	*gat	gotten	? got
beget	begot	*begat	begotten	? begot
forget	forgot	. .	forgotten	forgot
eat	ate	ets	eaten	eat
seethe	*sothe	. .	sodden	*sod
tread	trod	*trad	trodden	trod

PRESENT.	PAST TENSE. (First form.)	PAST TENSE. (Second form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Full form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Shortened form.)
come	.	came	.	come
overcome	.	overcame	.	overcome
bid	bade	bid	bidden	bid
forbid	forbade	forbid	forbidden	forbid
sit	sate	.	.	sat
give	gave	.	given	.
forgive	forgave	.	forgiven	.
lie	lay	.	lain	.
wake	woke	.	waken	.
awake	awoke	.	awaken	.
lade	*lode	.	laden	.
grave	*grove	.	graven	.
shape	*shope	.	shapen	.
strike	struck	.	stricken	struck
arise	arose	*aris p.	arisen	.
abide	abode	.	abidden	.
shine	shone	.	.	shone
smite	smote	*smit p.	smitten	{ *smit ? smote
ride	rode	*rid p.	ridden	{ ? rode *rid
stride	strode	*strid p.	stridden	{ ? strode *strid
glide	*glode	.	*glidden	*glid
slide	*slode	slid p.	slidden	? slid
chide	*chode	.	chidden	? chid
drive	drove	.	driven	.
thrive	throve	.	thriven	.
strive	strove	.	striven	.
write	wrote	writ p.	written	{ ? wrote writ
climb	clomb	.	.	.
slit	*slat	slit p.	*slitten	slit
bite	*bat	bit p.	bitten	bit
swim	swam	swum p.	.	swum
begin	began	begun p.	.	begun

PRESENT.	PAST TENSE. (First form.)	PAST TENSE. (Second form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Full form.)	PARTICIPLE. (Shortened form.)
spin	*span	spun <i>p.</i>	. .	spun
win	*wan	won ¹ <i>p.</i>	. .	won ¹
sing	sang	sung <i>p.</i>	*sungen	sung
swing	*awang	swung <i>p.</i>	. .	swung
spring	*sprang	sprung <i>p.</i>	. .	sprung
sting	*stang	stung <i>p.</i>	. .	stung
ring	*rang	rung <i>p.</i>	. .	rung
wring	*wrang	wrung <i>p.</i>	. .	wrung
fling	*flang	flung <i>p.</i>	. .	flung
cling	*clang	clung <i>p.</i>	. .	clung
*hing	hang	hung <i>p.</i>	. .	hung
string	*strang	strung <i>p.</i>	. .	strung
aling	*alang	alung <i>p.</i>	. .	alung
sink	sank	sunk <i>p.</i>	sunken	sunk
drink	drank	drunk <i>p.</i>	drunken	drunk
shrink	*shrank	shrunken <i>p.</i>	shrunken	shrunken
stink	*stank	stunk <i>p.</i>	. .	stunk
*swink	*swank	swunk <i>p.</i>	swinken	swunk
slink	*slank	slunk <i>p.</i>	. .	slunk
swell	*swoll	. .	swollen	. .
melt	*molt	. .	molten	. .
help	*holp	. .	*holpen	. .
delve	*dolve	. .	*dolven	. .
dig	dug	dug
stick	stuck	stuck
run	ran	run <i>p.</i>	. .	run
burst	*brast	burst	bursten	burst
bind	*band	bound	bounden	bound
find	*fand	found	. .	found
grind	*grand	ground	. .	ground
wind	*wand	wound	. .	wound
choose	chose	. .	chosen .	. .

¹ Pronounced *wun*.

THE WEAK CONJUGATION.

§ 238. The second conjugation of English verbs is called the Weak Conjugation. The meaning of the word *Weak* as applied to the conjugation of verbs may be seen § 255.

Verbs of the weak conjugation form their past tense from the present by the addition of the *sound* of *d*, *t*, or *-ed*; as *fill*, *filled* (pronounced *filld*), *dip*, *dipped* (pronounced *dipt*), *instruct*, *instructed*.

§ 239. In the present English the past participle and past tense have generally the same form. *I filled* (past tense), *I have filled* (past participle); *I dipped* (past tense), *I have dipped* (past participle); *I instructed* (past tense), *I have instructed* (past participle).

§ 240. Verbs of the weak conjugation are divided into three classes.

§ 241. *First Division*.—In the past tenses of this class, the sound of *t*, *d*, or *-ed*, is simply added to the present form.

serve	served	dip	dipped (<i>dipt</i>)
cry	cried	slip	slipped (<i>slipt</i>)
betray	betrayed	step	stepped (<i>stept</i>)
expell	expelled	look	looked (<i>lookt</i>)
accuse	accused	pluck	plucked (<i>pluckt</i>)
instruct	instructed	toss	tossed (<i>tost</i>)
invite	invited	push	pushed (<i>pusht</i>)
waste	wasted	confess	confessed (<i>confest</i>)

§ 242. *Second Division*.—In the second division of weak verbs *t*, *d*, or *-ed* is added, and the vowel (if long) is generally made short.

leave	left	creep	crept
cleave	cleft	sleep	slept
bereave	bereft	leap	leaped ¹
feel	felt	keep	kept
dream	dreamed ¹	sweep	swept
lean	leaned ¹	lose	lost
learn	learned	flee	fled

§ 243. The second division is the proper place for noticing those words the present tense of which ends in *-t*, or *-d*.

If we refer to § 45, we shall see that whenever the present ends in *-t* or *-d*, a difficulty must occur in forming the preterite.

§ 244. *First Method*.—This difficulty is met, in the first instance, by inserting a vowel between the *-t* or *-d* of the present, and the *-t* or *-d* which is the sign of the preterite; as *instruct*, *instruct-e-d*, not *instruct't*.

It is remarkable, however, that this way of meeting the difficulty occurs in only a few words; as *instruct*, *invite*, *waste*, *plant*, *end*. These form their preterites by the addition of the sound of the syllable *-ed*; as *instruct-ed*, *invit-ed*, *wast-ed*, *plant-ed*, *end-ed*. These belong to the first division of the weak verbs.

Observe, 1. That the words ending in *-d* or *-t* are the only words in English that ever form their preterites by the addition of the *sound* of the syllable *-ed*. In words like *moved* (*moovd*) and *killed* (*killd*) the *e* is present to the eye only.

Observe, 2. That, of the words ending in *-d* or *-t*

¹ Generally pronounced *drēm't*, *lēm't*, *lēpt*.

forming their preterites by the sound of the syllable *-ed*, very few are of Anglo-Saxon origin. *To instruct, invite, adopt, adapt, respect, &c.* are all of French or Latin extraction, and have come into the language since the time of the Norman conquest.

§ 245. *Second Method.*—The second method of denoting the difference between the present and preterite of verbs ending in *-d* or *-t*, is by shortening the vowel in the latter tense; as *meēt, tīght, shoōt*, which form as preterites *mēt, līt, shōt*; or as *feēd, bleēd, breēd, speēd, leād, reād*, which form as preterites *fēd, blēd, brēd, spēd, reād* (pronounced *rēd*). These words belong to the second division of the weak verbs.

§ 246. *Third Method.*—The method just exhibited is inapplicable in cases where the vowel in the present tense is short *already*; as in *bēnd, lēnd*. In this case the preterite is distinguished from the present by changing the sound of *-d* into that of *-t*; as *bend, rend, send, spend, lend, wend, gird, gild, build*, which form as preterites *bent, rent, sent, spent, lent, went, girt, gilt, built*.

Observe, 1. That *-d* is changed into *-t* only when it is preceded by *l, n, or r*; as *gi-ld, gi-rd, le-nd*.

Observe, 2. That these words belong to the second division of weak verbs; for they do not change their vowel from long to short, merely because it is short already. Were it long, it would certainly be changed.

§ 247. *Fourth Method.*—The method just exhibited is inapplicable in cases where the vowel is short, and where there is the sound of *-t* already in the present tense; as in *cūt, cāst*. In this case the present and

preterite are not distinguished from each other ; as *cut*, *cost*, *spread*, *hit*, *hurt*, *put*, *set*, *burst*, *cast*, *knit*.

Observe, 1. That these words belong to the second division of weak verbs. They do not change their vowel from long to short, merely because it is short already. Were it long, it would certainly be changed.

§ 248. *Shred*, and *shed*.—In these two words the present and preterite are alike. The preterite is not formed by the addition of *-ed*.

There are no such words as *shed-ed*, and *shred-ed*. Neither is *-d* changed into *-t*, as in *lend* and *spend* (*lent* and *spent*). There are no such words as *shret*, and *shet*. (See § 246, *Observ.* 1.)

These words also belong to the second division. They do not change their vowel from long to short, merely because it is short already. Were it long, it would certainly be changed.

§ 249. *Third Division*.—In the third division of weak verbs the past tense is formed from the present by adding *-d*, *-t* or *ed*, and by *changing* the vowel : as *tell*, *told* ; *sell*, *sold*.

§ 250. Before we consider the other words of this class, it is necessary to be familiar with the following facts respecting the affinities of the sounds of *g* in *gun*, and of *k* in *kin*.

1. The sound of the *k* in *kin* is allied to the sound of the *ch* (*tsh*) in *chest* ; that is, the sound of *k* has a tendency to change into that of *tsh*. In the words *teach*, *catch*, *beseech*, the last sound is that of *tsh*, as *teatsh*, *catsh*, *beseetsh*. Now this sound originated in the sound of *k*. It can be shewn from the comparison of languages that sounds like *ka* become, (1.) *kya*, (2.) *ksha*, (3.) *tsha*.

Hence the words *teach*, *catch*, and *beseech* are liable to the same changes as *teak*, *cak*, *beseek* would be liable to.

2. The sounds of *k* (as in *kan*), and *g* (as in *gon*), are allied to each other. They are also allied to the same sounds, so that the changes that the sound of *k* is liable to, the sound of *g* is liable to also.

3. The sounds of *k* and *g*, as in *brick* and *brig*, are allied to the sound of *ng*, as in *bring*.

4. The sounds of *k*, *g*, and *ng*, allied to each other, are also allied to the sounds of *h* (in *hot*), and of *y* (in *yet*). Very often the *h* is sounded strongly and in the throat; in which case it is still more akin to the sound of *g* (as in *gun*).

5. The sounds of *y* (in *yet*), and of *h* (in *hot*), have a great tendency to be softened in pronunciation, and afterwards to be omitted altogether.

Putting these facts together, we can understand how syllables that once contained the sounds of *k*, *g*, *ng*, *ngk*, *tsh*, *y*, and *h* may gradually miss those sounds, having first changed them, and afterwards lose them altogether.

§ 251. With these preliminaries we can go through the details of the third division of weak verbs.

1. *Seek*, present; *sough-t*, preterite. The forms in A. S. are *sece*, *soh-te*. The sound of the altered *k* preserved in the spelling *gh*.

2. *Teach*, present; *taugh-t*, preterite. The forms in A.S. are *tæce*, *tæh-te*. The sound of the altered *k* preserved in the spelling *gh*.

3. *Reach*.—The present preterite is *reached* (*reat-sht*), belonging to the first division of weak verbs. There is, however, the older preterite *raugh-t*, formed in the same way as *taugh-t*. A. S. *ræce*, *rah-te*.

4. *Beseech*, present; *besough-t*, preterite. Formed on the same principle as *taugh-t*.

5. *Catch*, present; *caugh-t*, preterite. The sound of the altered *k* still represented in the spelling *gh*.

6. *Bring*, present; *brough-t*, preterite. The altered sound of *ng* represented in the spelling *gh*. The A. S. forms were *bringe*, *brôh-te*.

7. *Think*, present; *though-t*, preterite. The altered sound of the *ngk* exhibited in the spelling *gh*. The A. S. forms were *pince*, *pôh-te*.

Observe. The words *think* and *thought*, in the sentences *I think* and *I thought*, are of different origin from the words *think* and *thought* in the sentences *methinks* and *methought*. The A. S. form of these latter words is *pence*, *puh-te*. The word *pencan* in A. S. meant not to *think*, but to *seem*.

8. *Work*, present; *work-ed* and *wrough-t*, preterite. The word *wrough-t* is formed on the same principle as *sough-t*, except that, over and above the usual change, there is a transposition of the sound of the *r*. The A. S. forms were *wyrce*, *worh-te*.

9. *Owe*, present; *ough-t*, preterite. The forms in A. S. *age*, *ahte*. In this case the original *g* is represented in the spelling only, and that by *w* in the present, and *gh* in the preterite tense. *Owe* is pronounced *o*, and *ough-t* is pronounced *aut*. This change from the sound of *g* to that of *w*, although not noticed above, is found in many words: as *sorrow*, *sorwe*, old English; *sorge*, Danish; *sorg*, *sorh*, A. S.

10. *Buy*, present; *bough-t*, preterite. The original *g* is found in A. S. *bycge*, *bôh-te*.

§ 252. The following verbs have peculiarities in the form of their preterites.

Made.—The forms in A. S. *macie*, *mac-ode*. The sound of the *k* is dropped in the modern English.

Had.—The form in A. S. *hæf-de*. The sound of the *f* is dropped in the modern English.

Burnt. — The following preterites are remarkable, viz. *burnt*, *learned* (pronounced *lērn̄t*), *spoilt*, *dealt*, *dreamed* (pronounced *drēm̄t*), *felt*, *dwelt*, *knelt*, *meant*, *spelled* (pronounced *spelt*), *spilled* (pronounced *spilt*). In all these we find the sound of *-t* where we expect that of *-d*.

Left, *cleft*, &c.—The following preterites are remarkable, viz. *left*, *cleft*, *bereft*. They end in the sound of *-t*, which is sharp. Yet the last sound of the present tense is that of *-v*, which is flat. Hence we should expect that the preterites would be *leaved*, *cleaved*, *bereaved*, pronounced *leevd*, *cleevd*, *bereevd*.

Obs. These words belong to the second division of verbs.

Burnt and *burned*.—The following verbs have two forms for the preterite; one in *d*, the other in *t*.

Present.		Preterite.
burn	. .	burned, burnt.
spoil	. .	spoiled, spoilt.
learn	. .	learned (lern̄t ¹).
deal	. .	dealed, dealt.
dream	. .	dreamed (drem̄t ¹).

Bended and *bent*.—The following words have two forms for the preterite; one in *-ed* the other in *-t*.

¹ So sounded in pronunciation.

Present.		Preterite.
bend	. .	bended, bent.
wend	. .	wended, went.
gild	. .	gilded, gilt.

Of these two forms the second is the best. *Bent, went, gilt*, are preferable to *bended, wended, gilded*.

Swoll and *swelled*.—The following verbs have two forms for the preterite; one strong, according to § 231, the other weak, according to § 238.

Present.		Preterite.
swell	. .	swoll, swelled.
climb	. .	clomb, climbed.

Could.—The *l* is no part of the word. It is only sounded by those who are misled by the analogy of *would* and *should*. The A. S. form was *cūðe*. *Could* is the preterite of *can*. This softening of *-n* occurs in many languages.

Durst.—In *dur-st* the *s* and *t* are no parts of the original word (*dare*). Neither are they signs of any tense, person, or mood, or number. The form *durst* has not yet been satisfactorily explained.

Must.—The form *must* is in the same predicament as *durst*. The A. S. form *mót, móton, móte*, shew that *s* is no part of the original word. The Danish form *maa* shews that *t* is no part of the original word.

Did. Previous to considering the nature of the word *did* we should be familiar with the following fact in the Mæso-Gothic. In that language several verbs form their preterites by repeating, or doubling, the first letter of the present.

Present.	Preterite.	English.
salt-a	sái-salt	<i>leap</i>
háit-a'	hái-háit	<i>call</i>
hláup-a	hláu-hláup	<i>run</i>
slêp-a	sái-slêp	<i>sleep</i>
lái-a	lái-ló	<i>laugh</i>
grêt-a	gái-grôt	<i>weep</i>

This method of forming the preterite was called the Reduplication (or doubling).

It is considered by good grammarians that the word *did* is a remnant of the old preterites formed, as in M. G., by reduplication.

In this case it is the first *d* that is the sign of the tense, *di-d* ; the second belonging to the original word *do*.

§ 253. *Quoth*.—This word is found in the preterite tense only ; so that in respect to its forms it is defective. The A. S. present was *cweðe*. In the compound word *bequeath* this present is still preserved.

§ 254. *Forlorn*.—This is a participle formed from the verb *lose*, the *s* being changed into *r*. The same change takes place in the words *rear* and *raise*. In the A. S. the change from *s* to *r* was less limited.

ceose, <i>I choose ;</i>	}	curon, <i>we chose ;</i>
ceás, <i>I chose ;</i>		gecoren, <i>chosen.</i>
forleose, <i>I lose ;</i>	}	forluron, <i>we lost ;</i>
forleás, <i>I lost ;</i>		forloren, <i>lost.</i>
hreose, <i>I rush ;</i>	}	hruron, <i>we rushed ;</i>
hreás, <i>I rushed ;</i>		gehroren, <i>rushed.</i>

In Milton we find—

———— The piercing air
Burns *frore*, and cold performs the effect of fire.

PARADISE LOST.

The word *frore* is from the A. S. *gefroren* = *frozen*.

§ 255. Words like *sang* are called strong because they are formed independently of any *addition*. Words like *filled* are called weak because they require the *addition* of the sound of *-d*.

COMPOSITION.

§ 256. The word *day-light* is a compound word. If we take away from it the word *day*, the word *light* still remains, a whole word. Or if we take away from it the word *light*, the word *day* still remains, a whole word. Hence in the compound word *day-light* we have two whole words put together. Composition is the putting together of two whole words so as to form one.

§ 257. By attending to the following sections we shall see in what way the different parts of speech are capable of being put together by composition.

Substantives preceded by Substantives.—A large and important class. *Day-star, morning-star, evening-star, land-slip, watch-house, light-house, rose-tree, oak-tree, fir-tree, harvest-time, goose-grass, sea-man, collar-bone, shoulder-blade, ground-nut, earth-nut, hazel-nut, wall-nut, fire-wood, sun-light, moon-light, star-light, torch-light, &c.*

Substantives preceded by Adjectives.—(1.) Proper Names. — *Good-man, New-man, North-humberland, South-hampton.* (2.) Common Names.—*Blind-worm, free-man, free-thinker, half-penny, grey-beard, green-sward, white-thorn, black-thorn, mid-day, mid-summer, quick-silver, holy-day, &c.*

Substantives preceded by Verbs.—*Turn-spit, spit-fire, dare-devil, whet-stone, kill-cow, sing-song, turn-coat, &c.*

Substantives preceded by the Participle Present.—*Turning-lathe, sawing-mill.*

Substantives preceded by the Past Participle of the Strong form.—None.

Substantives preceded by the Past Participle of the Weak form.—None.

Adjectives preceded by Substantives.—*Sight-less, sin-less, thank-less*, and other words ending in *-less*. *Sin-ful, thank-ful*, and other words ending in *-ful*. *Blood-red, eye-bright, coal-black, snow-white, nut-brown, heart-whole, ice-cold, foot-sore*, &c.

Adjectives preceded by Adjectives.—*All-mighty, two-fold, many-fold*, &c.

Adjectives preceded by Verbs.—*Stand-still, live-long*. Very rare.

Adjectives preceded by Present Participles.—None.

Adjectives preceded by Past Participles of the Strong form.—None.

Adjectives preceded by Past Participles of the Weak form.—None.

Verbs preceded by Substantives.—*God-send*.—Rare, and doubtful.

Verbs preceded by Adjectives.—*Little-heed, rough-hew*.—Rare, and doubtful.

Verbs preceded by Verbs.—*Hear-say*.—Rare.

Verbs preceded by Present Participles.—None.

Verbs preceded by Past Participles of the Strong form.—None.

Verbs preceded by Past Participles of the Weak form.—None.

Present Participles preceded by Adjectives.—*All-seeing, all-ruling, soft-flowing, fast-sailing, merry-making*.

Past Participles of the Strong form preceded by an Adjective.—*New-born, free-spoken.*

Present Participles preceded by Substantives.—*Fruit-bearing, music-making.*

Past Participles of the Strong form preceded by Substantives.—*Heaven-born, bed-ridden.*

Past Participles of the Weak form preceded by Substantives.—*Blood-stained.*

Past Participles of the Weak form preceded by an Adjective.—*Dear-bought, fresh-made, new-made, new-laid.*

Verbal Substantives preceded by Substantives.—*Man-eater, woman-eater, kid-napper, horn-blower.*—Numerous.

Verbal Substantives preceded by Adjectives.—None.

Verbal Substantives preceded by Verbs.—None.

Verbal Substantives preceded by Participles.—None.

Verbal Substantives preceded by Verbals.—None.

Verbal Adjectives preceded by Substantives.—*Mop-headed, shock-headed, chicken-hearted.*

Verbal Adjectives preceded by Adjectives.—*Cold-hearted, flaxen-haired, hot-headed, curly-pated.*

Verbal Adjectives preceded by Verbs.—None.

Verbal Adjectives preceded by Participles.—None.

Verbal Adjectives preceded by Verbals.—None.

§ 258. The words that can form only parts of subjects or predicates are called Particles; as *up, out, over, under, through, much, &c.*

These are of two sorts:—1. Those that can appear separately and by themselves; as *over, under, well.* These are called Separable Particles. 2. Those that appear only as parts of words; as the syllable *un* in *unloose.* These are called Inseparable Particles.

§ 259. *Words preceded by Separable Particles.*—*Overdo, undergo, well-beloved, &c.*—Numerous.

§ 260. *Words preceded by Inseparable Particles.*

§ 261. *Words preceded by the Inseparable Particle be.*—*Be-hove, be-fit, be-seem, be-lieve, be-lie, be-spatter, be-smear, be-get, be-labour, be-do, be-gin* (*on-ginnan* in A. S.), *be-gird, be-hold, be-mourn, be-reave, be-deck, be-think, be-mire, be-rhyme.* The forms throughout the allied languages are generally *bi-* or *be-*.

§ 262. *Words formed by the Inseparable Particle un.*—*Un-bind, un-do, un-loose, un-lock, un-wind.* The forms of the Inseparable in the different allied languages are—in Mæso-Gothic, *and-*; in Old High German, *ind-int-* *in-*; in Old Saxon, *ant-*; in Middle and New High German, *ent-*; in Anglo-Saxon, *on-*; as *on-bindan* (*un-bind*), *on-don* (*un-do*), *on-lýsan* (*un-loose*), *on-lúcan* (*un-lock*), *on-windan* (*un-wind*).

§ 263. *Words formed by the Inseparable Particle a.*—*A-light, a-rouse, a-rise, a-wake, a-wak-en, a-bet, a-bide, a-lay.* The forms of this Inseparable, different in different allied languages, are—in Mæso-Gothic, *us-*; in Old High German, *ur-, ar-, ir-, er-, ér-*; in Old Saxon and in Anglo-Saxon, *ā-*; as *ā-risan* (*a-rise*), *ā-weccan* (*a-wake*).

§ 264. *Words formed by the Inseparable Particle for.*—*For-get, for-do, fore-go, for-give, for-bid, for-bear, for-swear.* The *for-* here is of a different origin, and different in meaning and power, from the *fore-* in words like *fore-tell*. In different allied languages it takes different forms. In Mæso-Gothic, *fáir, faúr, fra.* In Old High German, *far, fer, fir, for.* In Middle and New High German, *ver.* In Anglo-Saxon, *for.*

DERIVATION.

§ 265. For the difference between Derivation and Composition, see p. 55.

§ 266. *Derivation by means of the addition of a Vowel.*—The¹ only vowel that in English constitutes by itself a form of derivation is that of the *ee* in *feet*, expressed for the most part by the letter *-y*. It occurs with two very distinct powers.

1. As a Diminutive; *babe*, *bab-y*. In Lowland Scotch it is far more common, and is spelt *-ie*; as *dogg-ie*, *lass-ie*, *ladd-ie*, *mous-ie*, *wif-ie*=*little* (or *dear*) *dog*, *lass*, *lad*, *mouse*, *wife*. In the word *baby* its power as a diminutive is obsolete.

2. After certain words ending in *-r*; as *fish-er-y*, *rook-er-y*, *brav-er-y*, *fool-er-y*, *prud-er-y*, *slav-er-y*, *witch-er-y*, *nurs-er-y*, *stitch-er-y*, and a few others. Respecting these words it must be remembered,

1. That they are Double Derivatives.

2. That the *-r* is probably the same as the *r* in *children*. See § 127.

3. That the vowel sound is not of Saxon or even Gothic origin. It originates from the *-y* in words like *astronom-y*, *histor-y*, *prophec-y*, *necromanc-y*, &c., all of which are words derived, not from any Gothic language, but from the Latin or Greek. The original form of these endings was *-ia*, as *astronom-i-a*, *histor-i-a*, &c. Hence words like *fish-er-y*, &c. are improperly formed.

§ 267. *Derivation by means of the addition of the liquid L.*—1. *Substantives*—*gird-le*, *kern-el*.

¹ The *-y* in words like *might-y* originated in *-ig*; as *mih̄t-ig*, A. S.

2. *Adjectives*.—*Litt-le, mick-le.*

3. *Verbs*.—*Spark-le.*

§ 268. *Derivation by means of the addition of the liquid R.*—*Substantives*.—Words that in A. S. ended in *-er*, and were (or would have been) of the masculine gender—*laugh-t-er, slaugh-t-er.*

Words that in A. S. ended in *-er*, and were (or should have been) of the neuter gender—*lay-er, lai-r* (A. S. *læg-er*), *fodd-er* (from the root of *feed*).

Substantives that in A. S. ended in *-ere*, and were (or would have been) of the masculine gender.—These form a numerous and important class. They are almost all the names of agents, and, if we subtract from almost any of them the ending *-er*, the remainder is either a verb or a word that can be used as such; *e. g.* a *bak-er* performs the act of *baking*, and, as such, is an agent (or one who acts or does), so that the word *bak-er* is the name of an agent. Subtract *-er*, and the remainder is *bake*, a word that can be used as a verb, *e. g.* *to bake, I bake, &c.*—*read-er, sing-er, harp-er, full-er, begg-er* (or *begg-ar*), *hunt-er, lend-er, borrow-er, reap-er, mow-er, sow-er, plough-er, fish-er, deal-er, wander-er, writ-er, lead-er, steer-er, look-er, heal-er, cobbl-er, li-ar, robb-er, sail-or, teach-er, help-er, los-er, hear-er, buy-er, sell-er, shap-er, leap-er, runn-er, walk-er, jump-er, murder-er, slaughter-er, fiddl-er, giv-er, work-er, rid-er, kill-er, slay-er, slumber-er, sleep-er, keep-er, leap-er, dream-er, teach-er, tell-er, bak-er, brew-er, thatch-er, weav-er, spinn-er, wait-er, eat-er, drink-er, din-er, roo-er, lov-er, moo-er, flatter-er, mill-er, glov-er, hatt-er.*

Substantives that in A. S. ended in *-ra*, and

were (or would have been) masculine — *gander*. A. S. *gand-ra*.

Verbs.—*Hind-er, low-er.*

§ 269. *Derivation by means of the addition of the liquid M.*—Few or none.

§ 270. *Derivations by means of the addition of the liquid N.*—*Substantives.*—*Maid-en, gamm-on (game), mai-n* (as in *might and main*). That the *-n* is no part of the original word in *mai-n* we see from the *may*. The idea in both *may* and *mai-n* is that of *power*.

Adjectives.—1. Words where the *-n* is preceded in the Old High German and the Old Saxon by *-a- = an*, e. g. *eik-an (own)*, O. H. G.; *êg-an (own)*, O. S.—*ow-n, op-en*.

2. Words where the *-n* is preceded in Mæso-Gothic by *-ei-*, in Old High German by *-t-*, and in Old Saxon by *-i-*; e. g. *paûrn-ein-s (thorny)*, M. G.; *ird-en (earthen)*, O. H. G.; *bâm-in (woody, i. e. made of beams)*, O. S. Words of this sort express in English the circumstance of the object to which they are applied being *made of the material of which* the radical part of the derivative is the name; thus, *gold-en* is a derivative from *gold*; *gold* is the radical part of the derivative *gold-en*; the radical word *gold* is the name of a material of which certain objects (such as *guineas, &c.*) may be made. When we say *golden guinea* we apply the word *golden* to the object *guinea*, and express the circumstance of *guineas* being made of *gold*, or (in other words) of that material of which *gold*, (the radical part of the derivative word *gold-en*,) is the name. *Oak-en, ash-en, beech-en, braz-en, flax-en, gold-en, lead-en, silk-en, wood-en, wooll-*

en, *twigg-en* (obsolete), *hemp-en*, *wheat-en*, *oat-en*, *wax-en*.

§ 271. *Derivations formed by the addition of the mute letter P.*—None.

§ 272. *Derivations formed by the addition of the mute letter B.*—None.

§ 273. *Derivations formed by the addition of the mute letter F.*—None.

§ 274. *Derivations formed by the addition of the mute letter V.*—In the present stage of the current English language, none.

§ 275. *Derivations formed by the addition of the sound of the semi-vowel W.*—In the present stage of the current English, none.

§ 276. *Derivations formed by the addition of the sound of the vowel O, originating in -ow, or -ov, and spelt in the present English -ow.*—Although it is proper in all cases of grammar to consider the sound rather than the spelling of words, the derivatives in question are more fitly placed in the present section than in § 274. By comparison with *shade* and *mead*, the forms *shad-ow* and *mead-ow* are shown to be derivative; whilst the following forms prove that the *-ow*, although now sounded as the vowel *-o* (*shadd-o*, *medd-o*), originated in *-w*, or *-v*: *skad-v-j-an* = to *sha-dow*, M.-G.; *scead-uw-es* = *shadow's*, A. S.; *scead-ew-an* = to *sha-dow*, A. S.

§ 277. *Derivation by means of the addition of the mute consonant T.*—1. Substantives. Words which in A. S. ended in *-t*, *gif-t*, *shrif-t*, *thef-t*, *wef-t* (*weave*), *rif-t*, *drif-t*, *thrif-t*, *fros-t* (*freeze*), *gris-t* (*grind*), *fligh-t*, *sigh-t*, *draugh-t* (*draw*), *weigh-t*.

2. Words which in A. S. ended in *-ta*. The compounds of the word *wright* (from the root *work*, in the old past tense *wrough-t*); such as *cart-wright*, *wheel-wright*, *mill-wright*, &c.

Adjective.—*Tigh-t* (tie).

§ 278. *Derivations by means of the addition of the mute consonant D*.—*Substantives*.—*Bran-d* (burn, brenn, obsolete), *floo-d* (flow), *mai-d* (may in Lowland Scotch), *see-d* (sow), *bur-d-en* (bear).

Adjectives.—*Dea-d* (die), *col-d* (cool). In the word *thir-d*, from *three*, the *d* stands for *th* (as in *fif-th*, &c.) in order to avoid the concurrence of the sound of *th* twice within the same syllable.

§ 279. *Derivation by means of the addition of the mute consonant TH* (A. S. *p*) as sounded in *thin*.—*Substantives*. The following words ending in *-th* are the names of abstract ideas; *dea-th*, *bir-th* (bear), *heal-th*, *leng-th*, *bread-th*, *heigh-th*, *dep-th*, *mir-th*, *tru-th* (trow, Lowland Scotch), *weal-th*, *fil-th*, *til-th* (tillage, or tilled ground), *ki-th* (as in the phrase *kith* and *kin*).

Adjectives.—The syllable *-cou-th* in the compound word *un-cou-th*. This word originally meant *unknown*, originating in the word *ken*=to know. This we see from the following forms, *kun-p-s*, in the Mæso-Gothic, and *chun-t*, in the Old High German, signifying *known* (*kenned*).

§ 280. *Derivatives by means of the addition of the mute consonants TH* (A. S. *ð*) as sounded in *thine*.—*Bur-th-en*.

§ 281. *Derivatives by means of the addition of the sound of the mute consonant S, sounded as in sin*.—*Substantives*.—In the word *goose* (*goo-se*) the *s* is no

part of the original word, in which also an *-n* and a *d* have been lost. Compare the German word *gan-s*, and the English word *gand-er*. The *s* in *goo-se* is derivative.

§ 282. *Derivatives by means of the addition of the sound of the Z in zeal and the S in flags (flagz).—Verbs.*—*Clean-se (clenz)* from *clean*. In A. S. *clæn-s-i-an*.

§ 283. *Derivatives by means of the addition of the sound of the SH in shine.—Few or none.*

§ 284. *Derivation by means of the addition of the sound of the Z in azure.—None.*

§ 285. *Derivation by means of the addition of the mute letter K.—Hill-ock.*

§ 286. *Derivation by means of the addition of the mute letter G.—None.*

§ 287. *Derivations formed by the addition of the sound of the vowel E (as in feet), originating in -ig, and spelt in the present English -y.—All the derivative adjectives that now end in -y, ended in A. S. in -ig; as blood-y, craft-y, drear-y, might-y, mist-y, mood-y, merr-y, worth-y, of which the A. S. forms were blôd-ig, cræft-ig, dreór-ig, miht-ig, mist-ig, môd-ig, myr-ig, worth-ig.* Although it is proper in all cases of grammar to consider the sound rather than the spelling of words, the derivatives in question are more fitly placed in the present section than elsewhere.

Derivation by means of the addition of the syllable -ing.—*Farth-ing* ($\frac{1}{4}$), *rid-ing*¹ ($\frac{1}{3}$, a corruption from *thrith-ing*). Also, *clean-s-ing*, *dawn-ing*, *morn-ing*. In these words the *-ing* was originally *-ung*; as *clæn-s-ung*, *dag-ung*, A. S. It is clear that forms like *cleansing*,

¹ As the three *ridings* of Yorkshire.

from the A.S. *cleans-ung*, are different in origin from the participles in *-ing*, as *cleans-ing*. This double origin of words in *-ing* should be remembered.

Derivation by means of the addition of the syllable l-ing.
—*Gos-l-ing* (little goose), *duck-l-ing* (little duck), *dar-l-ing* (little dear), *hire-l-ing*, *found-l-ing*, *fond-l-ing*, *nest-l-ing*, &c. The words of this class are generally diminutives, or words expressive of smallness. The word *diminutive* is derived from the Latin word *diminuo*—to diminish.

Derivation by means of the addition of the syllable -kin.—*Lamb-kin* (little lamb), *man-i-kin* (little man). Words ending in *-kin* are chiefly diminutives.

Derivation by means of the addition of the syllable -rel.
—*Cock-erel* (little cock), *pick-erel* (little pike). Diminutives.

Derivation by means of the addition of the syllable -ard.
—*Drunk-ard*, *stink-ard*.

Derivation by means of the addition of the syllable -old.
—*Thresh-old*.

Derivation by means of the addition of the syllable -ern.
—*East-ern*, *west-ern*, *north-ern*, *south-ern*.

Derivation by means of the addition of the syllable -ish.
—*Child-ish*, *Engl-ish*, *self-ish*, *whit-ish*. This class comprises several adjectives. It must not be thought that the forms in *-ish* are examples of the sound of the *sh* in *shine* being used in derivation; since the original form was *-isk*; *cild-isc* (*child-ish*), *Engl-isc* (*English*), A. S. This softening down of the sound of *-sk* (or *-sc*) into that of the *sh* in *shine* occurs in many languages.

Derivation by means of the addition of the syllable -ness.—*Good-ness*, *bad-ness*, *wicked-ness*, *bright-ness*, *dark-ness*, *weari-ness*, *dreadi-ness*, &c. These form a numer-

ous and important class. The fact to be here noticed is, that the *-n-* is, most probably, no part of the original form. This was simply *-ass*—or *-uss*—as in words like *fil-ussi* (a crowd) in the Mæso-Gothic; and hence the proper way of showing the structure of the words in question is to write them as follows:—*good-n-ess*, *bad-n-ess*, *dark-n-ess*, &c. The origin of the *-n-* has not been satisfactorily determined.

Derivation by means of the addition of the syllable -ster.—*Song-ster*, *pun-ster*. Originally words in *-str-* were limited to the names of females, and were opposed to the substantives in *-er* (§ 268), the names of *male* agents. Thus, in A. S.

sangere, a male singer	} were opposed to	sængestre, a female singer.
bæcere, a male baker		bæcestre, a female baker.
fidelere, a male fiddler		fidelestre, a female fiddler.
webbere, a male weaver		webbestre, a female weaver.
rædere, a male reader		rædestre, a female reader.
seamere, a male seamer		seamestre, a female seamer (or <i>seamstress</i>).

The single word *spin-ster*, still retains its feminine force.

Derivation by means of changing the sound of a consonant.—*Price*, *prize*; *cloth*, *clothe*¹; *use*, *use* (pronounced *uze*); *grass*, *graze*; *grease*, (pronounced *greace*), *grease*, (pronounced *greaze*). In each of the pairs of words given above, the former is a substantive, and the latter a verb.

The verb is formed from the substantive by changing the sharp mute into its corresponding flat one.

¹ Pronounced *clodhe*.

Derivation by means of changing the sound of a vowel.—*Rise, raise ; lie, lay ; fall, fell ; sit, set.* The generality of these words are verbs. There are, however, a few nouns, as *top, tip ; cat, kitten.*

Derivation by means of transposing the accent.—See p. 28. This takes place only with words not of Anglo-Saxon origin.

§ 288. Certain compound words have the appearance of being derived ones. This takes place when they alter in form, and no longer look like original independent words. The adjectives and adverbs ending in *-ly* are of this kind ; such as *man-ly, bright-ly.* In the present language the syllable *-ly* has not, by itself, any meaning at all, and, consequently, is no separate independent word. Originally, however, it *was* a separate and independent word ; in A. S. *-lic*, in O. H. G. *-lih*, in M. S. *-leik*.

The same is the case with words ending in *-ric* (as *bishop-ric*), with words ending in *-ship* (as *friend-ship*), with words ending in *-hood*, (as *man-hood*), and with words ending or beginning with *miss-* (as *a-miss, mis-take*), and with several others. In some older stages of language the words *-ric, -ship, -hood, miss-* (or *-miss*), were separate independent words with separate independent meanings. The precise meaning, however, it is not always easy to ascertain.

Certain derived words have the appearance of being compounds. This is the case with words like *upmost* (see p. 79), where combinations, like those of the sound of *-m* and *-ost*, take the appearance of separate independent words. That this is not the case may be seen in p. 79.

§ 289. In words like *command-ment*, *us-age*, *penetrable*, the syllables *-ment*, *-age*, and *-able* are so many instances of derivation. The same is the case with words like *act-or* and *actr-ess*, &c. Now, respecting these endings, it must be remarked that they were unknown in Anglo-Saxon, and that they were also unknown in the earlier stages of all the allied languages. Their origin was from some language foreign to the original English. Some were introduced from the Latin, others from the French.

Now it is not proper to fix any of these foreign terminations to a word of English, Anglo-Saxon, or Gothic extraction. If we did so, there would be two languages in one word. In this respect, however, the best authors have occasionally erred; so that there are words formed by an intermixture of languages current in the present English. The word *shepherd* is of Gothic origin; the syllable *-ess* (as the sign of the feminine gender) is of French origin. Hence the word *shepherd-ess* is not wholly unexceptionable. We can say *tigr-ess* = *a female tiger*, but not *fox-ess* = *a female fox*. The reason of this is, because in *tigr-ess* both syllables are of French (or Latin) origin; whilst in *fox-ess* the first is Anglo-Saxon, the second French.

PART IV.

SYNTAX.

§ 290. THE word *Syntax* is derived from the Greek words *syn* (*with* or *together*), and *taxis* (*arrangement*). It relates to the arrangement or putting together of words. Etymology deals with the forms of single words; Syntax, with the combination of more words than one, with the view of expressing a meaning, or forming sense. The chief points in syntax are Concord and Government, words which will be explained within a few sections.

§ 291. *Syntax of Substantives*.—The chief point to be noticed under this head is the *use of the Infinitive Verb as a Substantive*.

In the line,

To err is human, to forgive divine,

the infinitive verb *to err* is equivalent in sense to the substantive *error*; whilst the infinitive verb *to forgive* is equivalent to the substantive *forgiveness*. The whole sentence is equivalent to *Error is human, forgiveness divine*. This use of the infinitive verb for a substantive is common in the Latin, the Greek, and in all the Gothic languages, with the exception of the Old Norse and the Mæso-Gothic.

§ 292. *Use of the Present Participle as a Substantive.*

—The sentence, *Erring is human, forgiving is divine*, is equivalent to *Error is human, forgiveness is divine*. In this case the present participles *erring* and *forgiving* are equivalent to the substantives *error* and *forgiveness*. This use of the present participle as a substantive is less general in other languages than the similar use of the infinitive verb.

§ 293. Other parts of speech are also used occasionally as substantives. In the sentence *the blacks of Africa*, the word *blacks* is, in its origin, an adjective.

Again, in phrases like *ifs and ans, one long now*, &c., the words *if*, *an*, and *now*, originally conjunctions and adverbs, are used as substantives. *If* and *an* are equivalent to some such combinations as *cases of doubt expressed by if and an*, where the sense is that of a substantive; whilst *now* is equivalent to some such combination as *the present time*, where the sense is also that of a substantive. These last-named modes of expression should be used rarely, and only with the sanction of the best writers.

§ 294. *Apposition.*—In the expression *George King of England*, the words *King* and *George* are said to be in apposition to each other. In expressions like this we must remark two things :

1. That the substantives in apposition to each other are in the same case. The words *King* and *George* are both nominatives.

2. That they express the same thing. The word *George*, applied to that particular monarch, means the same thing as the *King of England*, and the words *King*

of England applied to the same monarch mean the same thing as *George*.

3. That words in apposition explain each other. If we say simply the *King of England*, we do not sufficiently explain ourselves ; since we may mean a *Henry*, an *Edward*, or a *William*. And if we say simply *George*, we do not sufficiently explain ourselves ; since we may mean any person in the world whose name is *George*. But if we say *George, King of England*, we explain what *king* and what *George* is meant. Hence the two substantives *King* and *George* explain each other.

Words that thus explain each other, mean the same thing, and are in the same case, may be said to be *placed alongside of each other*, or to be in apposition. The Latin word *appositio* means *putting by the side of*. The following are specimens of apposition :

Solomon, the son of David.

Croesus, King of Lydia.

The brave man, Leonidas.

The capital of England, London.

Content, the source of happiness,—John's the farmer's wife,—Oliver's the spy's evidence. For words to be in apposition to each other, they must be in the same case.

§ 295. In phrases like those exhibited in § 294, which were instances of apposition, the two substantives that were placed together (as *content* and *source*) were names for the same thing.

Two substantives, however, may be placed together, being names for different things, and therefore *not* in apposition, as in phrases like *the father's son, the son of the father ; the children's bread, the bread of the children.*

In these cases the word *bread* does not mean the same as the word *children* ; neither are the words *father* and *son* different names for the same object.

When two nouns meaning different things are placed together in the same term, one is said to be *governed* by the other, or to be in a state of *government*. The words *children's* and *father's* are governed by the words *bread* and *son* respectively.

Of two substantives placed together, the one that is governed by the other is always in the possessive case, —*the man's hat* ; *the woman's ring* ; *the boy's horse*, &c. ; where *man's*, *woman's*, and *boy's* are possessive cases, governed by the words *hat*, *ring*, and *horse* respectively.

In phrases like *the hat of the boy*, the word *boy* is governed by the preposition *of*.

As the particular case in which a word stands *depends* upon the words that are taken along with it, the word *government* is not ill-chosen as the name for the *dependence* of one word upon another.

As different parts of speech require the words taken along with them to be in different cases, they may be said to *govern* different cases ; thus a verb governs one case, and a preposition another. The noun, as stated above, governs the possessive case.

§ 296. Sometimes two or three words in a state of government may be dealt with as a single word. This we shall understand by attending to the nature of the following expression,—*the King of Saxony's army*. In this expression three things are very evident.

1. That the *army* is spoken of as belonging, not to the country *Saxony*, but to the *King* of that country.

2. That the sign of the possessive case naturally comes after the word *king* ; as *the king's army*.

3. That, as the expression stands, the *army* appears to be spoken of as belonging to *Saxony*.

Yet this is not really the fact. The truth is, that the whole expression is dealt with as a single word.

§ 297. *Ellipsis*.—Sometimes a possessive case stands alone, without any substantive to govern it. In this case the governing substantive is said to be *understood* ; that is, the hearer is supposed to understand what is meant, without the sentence being expressed in full. Sentences of this sort are said to be *elliptical*, or to exhibit an *ellipsis*. The word *ellipsis* is derived from the Greek word *elleipein* = *to fall short of*. The following are examples of *ellipsis*.

1. *This was bought at Rundell and Bridge's*.—Understand *shop*.

2. *I am going to St. Paul's*.—Understand *cathedral*, or some such word.

§ 298. *Pleonasm*.—This word, derived from the Greek word *pleonazein* = *to be in excess*, is the opposite to *ellipsis*. Pleonasm is exemplified in § 309.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 299. As the adjectives are destitute of gender, case, and number, and as they always appear in the same form, (*a good man, a good woman, good things*,) the consideration of the syntax of them is limited to the degrees of comparison.

§ 300. In the comparative degree we occasionally find, even in good writers, besides the syllable *-er*, the

word *more* ; as *the more serene spirit*. Expressions like these are pleonastic, since the word *more* is a superfluity.

§ 301. In the superlative degree we occasionally find, even in good writers, besides the syllable *-est*, the word *most* ; as *the most straitest sect*. Expressions like these are pleonastic, since the word *most* is a superfluity.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

§ 302. The present is the proper place for explaining the meaning of the word *Concord*. It is derived from the Latin word *concordia*, and signifies *agreement*.

§ 303. The word *man* is the name of a male. It is a substantive of the masculine gender. The word *she* relates to a female. It is a pronoun of the feminine gender. We cannot say *I saw the man and she* (meaning *the man*) *saw me*, for reasons that are very evident. The words *she* and *man* are the names of objects of different genders, consequently of different objects ; hence they cannot be used in speaking of the same thing. If we so use them, there is a disagreement (or discord) in respect to gender. *I saw the woman and she saw me* is good sense. *I saw the man and he saw me* is also good sense ; since the word *she* is of the same gender with *woman*, and *he* of the same gender with *man* : consequently each pair of words (*he* and *man*, *she* and *woman*) agree in gender ; in other words, there is the concord of gender.

§ 304. The second kind of concord is the concord of number. The word *this* is of the singular, the word *books* is of the plural number. If we say *this books are* (or *is*) *useful*, we violate the concord of number ; but if

we say *these books*, we observe the concord of number, and so we do if we say *this book*.

§ 305. It is very clear that there can be no violation of the concords unless there be different forms for the different persons and numbers. We can say *good book*, or *good books*, because the word *good*, like other adjectives, is the same in both numbers. It is only when we come to the pronouns, where there *are* different forms for the different numbers, that there is any occasion to take cognizance of the concords.

Concord and government are the chief parts of syntax.

§ 306. *Violations (real or apparent) of the Concord of Gender.*—In the following expressions there is an apparent violation of the concord.

1. *Gold*, whose *touch seductive leads to crime*.—According to the view generally taken, the word *gold* is of the neuter gender, whilst *whose* is either masculine or feminine. In this case there is a violation of the concord of gender. Still the matter is susceptible of explanation. We may say that *gold* is personified, and dealt with as if it were a person either male or female, in the same way that *Sin*, *Death*, *Virtue*, and *Vice*, &c. are personified.

Or else we may deny that the word *whose* is *exclusively* either masculine or feminine. The original possessive form in A. S. was *hwæs* (*whose*), and it was used for all three genders alike.

2. *The cities who aspired to liberty*.—The word *cities* is neuter, the word *who* is either masculine or feminine. The expression is open to the same explanation as the one last-mentioned.

The unexceptionable and unequivocal forms of the two expressions just exhibited would be, 1. *Gold, the touch of which seductive leads to crime.* 2. *The cities which aspired to liberty.*

Violations (real or apparent) of the Concord of Number. — 1. In expressions like *the men that fought at Waterloo*, there is an apparent violation of the concord of number; *men* being plural, whilst *that* (see p. 84) is in form and origin, singular. Notwithstanding, however, the fact of *that* being originally of the neuter gender and the singular number, it may now be considered that the practice of language permits it to be used for both numbers, and all genders, indifferently; as, *the woman that speaks, the man that speaks, the children that speak.*

2. *I have not travelled this twenty years.* — As *this* is singular, and *twenty years* plural, there is an apparent violation of the concord of number. Still, it is only apparent. The words *twenty years* may be considered to mean, not *twenty separate years taken severally*, but *a number of years amounting to twenty dealt with as a single period.* In this latter case the words *twenty years*, though plural in form, are singular in sense.

3. *These sort of people.* — Here *these* is plural, and *sort* is singular; so that there is a violation (real or apparent) of the concord of number. Still, as the word *sort* implies the existence of more persons than one, the expression is open to the same explanation as the preceding one.

The reason of this confusion of gender is indicated in § 123. There are in all languages certain substantives called collectives. Of these collectives the word *six-*

pence is a good example. It involves two notions: (1.) that of *six separate pennies*; (2.) that of *six separate pennies dealt with as a single sum*. In the first case it is plural; since in talking of *six separate pennies* we contemplate a plurality of parts. In the second case it is singular, since in talking of *a single sum* we lose sight of the plurality of parts, and contemplate only the unity of sum that results from them. In all collective substantives there is a mixture of two notions,—of that expressed by the singular, and of that expressed by the plural number; and this causes apparent irregularities in syntax.

Army, parliament, people, mob, gang, set, family, &c. are collectives.

By remembering that in all languages there is a tendency to *personify*, we can explain many apparent violations of the Concord of Gender.

By remembering that in all languages there is a great number of *collective* substantives, we can explain many apparent violations of the Concord of Number.

§ 307. *Violation of the Concord of Case.* — *I bought this at Smith's the bookseller.* Here the words *Smith's* and *bookseller* mean the same thing; and are, consequently, in apposition to each other. As such, they ought to be in the same case, which they are not. *Smith's* is the possessive, *bookseller* the nominative form. This is a violation of the concord of case. The proper expression is either *Smith's the bookseller's*, according to § 294; or *Smith the bookseller's*, according to § 296.

This last example ought properly to have appeared under *the Syntax of Substantives*. It was considered,

however, that the pronoun was the best head under which the nature of the concords could be explained.

§ 308. The Concord of Person will be noticed under the Syntax of the Verb.

§ 309. *Pleonasm in the Syntax of Pronouns.*—The following expressions are pleonastic (§ 298). The superfluous pronoun is in each case printed in italics.

1. The king, *he* is just.
2. I saw *her*, the queen.
3. The men, *they* were there.
4. The king, *his* crown.

This last example is of importance in the history of Grammar. Expressions like it occur frequently in the old writers, especially in the Liturgy of the Church; as *for Jesus Christ his sake*. On the strength of this it has been imagined by certain writers that the possessive case throughout the language arose out of an abbreviation of this mode of speech, and that *the King's grace* was nothing more than a shortened form of *the King, his grace*. This view is erroneous, and, it is to be hoped, abandoned.

1. Expressions like the *Queen's Majesty* are not capable of being derived from *the Queen, his Majesty*; since the pronoun would, in such a case, be not *his*, but *her*; as *the Queen, her Majesty*.

2. Expressions like *the children's bread* are not capable of being derived from *the children, his bread*; since the pronoun would, in such a case, be not *his*, but *their*; as *the children, their bread*.

3. The oldest Anglo-Saxon forms exhibit no traces of the sound of *-h*. The possessive cases of *end, cyning*

(*king*), *smið* (*smith*), are *end-es*, *cynning-es*, *smið-es*, not *end-his*, *cynning-his*, *smið-his*.

4. The form *his* itself is not accounted for by the view in question ; since we cannot say that *his* is an abbreviated form of *he his*.

5. In languages allied to those of the Gothic stock, where there is no word like *his* in existence, the sign of the possessive (or genitive case) is still *-s*.

a. In the Sanskrit, or old language of Hindostan, of the same *tribe* with the languages of the Gothic stock, the genitive ends in *-s*, as *pad-as*=*of a foot*, or *foot's*.

b. In the Zend, or old language of Persia, of the same *tribe* with the languages of the Gothic stock, the genitive ends in *-s*, as *dughdhar-s*=*of a daughter*, or *daughter's*.

c. In the Greek, of the same *tribe* with the languages of the Gothic stock, the genitive ends in *-s*, as *odont-os*=*of a tooth*, or *tooth's*.

d. In the Latin, of the same *tribe* with the languages of the Gothic stock, the genitive ends in *-s*, as *dent-is*=*of a tooth*, or *tooth's*.

e. In the Lithuanic, or language of Lithuania, of the same *tribe* with the languages of the Gothic stock, the genitive ends in *-s*, as *dugter-s*=*of a daughter*, or *daughter's*.

The same is the case in many other of the allied languages.

§ 310. *Relative and Antecedent*.—The pronoun *who* is called a Relative pronoun. The pronoun *that* is also used relatively. The word *which* is a compound of *who* ; and, consequently, like *who* and *that*, is rela-

tive also. A relative pronoun always relates to some substantive or pronoun that has gone before it; as,

1. *He who* wrote the letter is here.
2. *She who* wrote the letter is here.
3. *The child that* you spoke of is here.
4. *The men that* fought are here.
5. *The dagger which* stabbed Cæsar.
6. *The daggers which* stabbed Cæsar.

In all these examples the words *who*, *that*, and *which* are relatives.

The word that the relative refers (or relates) to is called the *Antecedent*, or the word *going before*; from the Latin word *antecedens*=*going before*. The words *he*, *she*, *child*, *men*, *dagger*, *daggers* are antecedents.

§ 311. The relative is always in the same number and gender as the antecedent; but not necessarily in the same case. This is called the Concord of the Relative and Antecedent.

§ 312. *The position of the Relative and Antecedent.*— Sometimes there are two words in a term, each of which may be an antecedent, whilst there is but a single relative. In this case the relative refers to the last of the two. The expression, *Solomon, the son of David, who built the Temple*, is exceptionable; since *who* (the relative) refers in strict grammar to *David*; whereas it is well known that *David* was not the *builder* of the *Temple*.

Still the expression is capable of being justified by § 296, according to which we may look upon *Solomon, the son of David*, as a single word, capable of being written *Solomon-the-son-of-David, who*, &c.

§ 313. The word *as* is occasionally used as a relative

pronoun,—*the man as rides to market.* This mode of speaking or writing should not be imitated.

§ 314. *The Article a or an.*—The word *an* (or *a*) is called an Article, from the Latin word *articulus*=*a joint*. It can only occur combined or conjoined with other words; as *a man, an island, a woman*. It is the same for all genders; as *a man, a woman, a sword*.

It is also the same for all cases, as *a man's, a woman's, a sword's, of a man, to a man, strike a man, &c.*

It occurs only conjoined with substantives of the singular number; since it is in origin the numeral *one*, in Scotch *ane*. This use of the numeral *one* for an article is common in many languages.

§ 315. The article *an* (or *a*) is used where we speak of some single object without specifying or defining it. For this reason the word *an* (or *a*) is called the Indefinite Article.

§ 316. The words *an* and *a* are identical. In the latter the sound of the *-n* is omitted. Which of the two forms is to be used depends upon the nature of the following substantive.

1. When the substantive begins with the sound of a vowel we use *an*; as *an ant, an egg, an island, an ostrich, an hour, an heir*. In these two last words the *h* is not sounded (or mute); so that the words *heir* and *hour* really begin with the sounds of vowels.

2. When the substantive begins with the sound of a consonant, a semivowel, or *h*, we use *a*; as *a pan, a bat, a fane, a vane, a tile, a den, a thought, a coat, a kitten, a gun, a sun, a zany, a chest, a jest, a house, a hill, a hint, a kindrance, &c.*

Observe.—The following words (and others like

them), although their first letter is a vowel, are preceded by the form *a* ; *a ewer*, *a unit*, *a one* (as in *many a one*). We do not say *an ewer*, *an unit*, *an one*, although the words are frequently written so.

Of this we shall see the reason if we remember the *sounds* of the words in question. *Ewer*, *unit*, *one* (and other words like them), are sounded *yoo-er*, *yoo-nit*, *won*, in which case they begin, not with a vowel, but a semi-vowel.

§ 317. *The Definite Article* the.—The word *the* is called the Definite Article, because it specifies or defines the substantive with which it is conjoined ; as *the man*, *the woman*, *the child* ; by which expression some particular *man*, *woman*, or *child* is signified.

The definite article is the same for all genders ; as *the man*, *the woman*, *the child*.

It is also the same for all cases ; as *the man's*, *the children's*, *the men's*, *of the man*, *to the man*.

It is also the same for all numbers ; as *the man*, *the men* ; *the woman*, *the women* ; *the child*, *the children*.

The definite article was originally a demonstrative pronoun, of the nature of which it partakes. Definite articles, originating in demonstrative pronouns, occur in most languages.

§ 318. When two substantives come together, meaning the same thing, the article is joined to the first of them only. We say *the secretary and treasurer*, or *a secretary and treasurer*, when the two offices are held by one person.

§ 319. When two substantives come together, meaning different things, the article is repeated, and conjoined with each of the two. We say *the secretary and*

the treasurer, or a secretary and a treasurer, when the two offices are held by *separate* persons. This rule is not rigidly adhered to.

§ 320. For the use of *it* and *there*, see the Syntax of Verbs.

§ 321. Instead of the true nominative *ye*, we use (with few exceptions) the objective case *you*; as *you speak, you two are speaking*. In this case we substitute one case for another.

§ 322. Instead of the true pronoun of the second person singular, *thou*, we use (with few exceptions) the pronoun of the second person plural, *ye*; and that (as is seen in § 321) in the objective rather than the nominative case, *you*; *you speak=thou speakest*.

It is a remarkable fact, that there are very few languages where the pronoun of the second person singular (the equivalent to the English word *thou*) is used, except in solemn discourse. Sometimes the pronoun of the second person plural, sometimes that of the third person plural, serve as its substitute.

§ 323. By referring to pp. 83, 84, 85, we shall see that the word *those* is the true demonstrative form, whilst the words *they* and *them* partake of the nature of personal pronouns. Now expressions like *those men*, and *take those things away*, are strictly demonstrative; so that the proper word to be used is *those*. Instead of this, however, we occasionally hear such expressions as *they men*, and *take them things away*. Although not to be imitated, these latter expressions are capable of being explained, through the fact of the original power of *they* and *them* being demonstrative. (See § 184.)

§ 324. For the nature of the Possessive Pronouns, see

§§ 190, 191, 192. They are divided into the (1.) Possessive Pronouns which are absolute (*mine, thine, ours, yours, hers, theirs*).; and (2.) into the Possessive Pronouns which are not absolute (*my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their*).

§ 325. The possessive pronouns partake of the nature both of possessive cases and of adjectives. They have, however, in respect to their syntax the following peculiarity. They can neither be used in all cases where a possessive case can occur, nor yet in all places where an adjective is admitted.

This we shall see by attending to the following details, whereby we may also observe the difference between the power of the possessive case in -s (*father's*), and the power of the objective case preceded by the preposition *of* (*of a father*).

This is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's. — The first thing to be remarked here is the difference in sense between a sentence like the one above, and a sentence like *this is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton*. The latter proposition means *this is how Sir Isaac Newton was discovered*: the former means *of Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries this is one*; or *this is one of the discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries*. Now the difference in sense is expressed by the presence or the absence of the 's in *Newton's*; that is, by the fact of the noun *Newton* being in the possessive case. In the first sentence the word *Newton's* is possessive; and the question arises as to what word it is governed by. We see this at once by bearing in mind the meaning of the sentence. The three sentences (1.) *this is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's*; (2.) *this is one of Sir Isaac Newton's discove-*

ries ; (3.) of *Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries* *this is one*, (meaning nearly the same thing, and differing widely from *this is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton*,) are all, if closely examined, incomplete in expression. The full expression would be (1.) *this is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's (discoveries)*; (2.) *this is one of the discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton's (discoveries)*; (3.) *of the discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton's (discoveries) this (discovery) is one (discovery)*. We now see that, in the original sentence, the word *Newton's* is in the possessive case ; because, according to § 295, it is governed by the substantive *discovery* not expressed, but understood. Again :—

This is a picture of my friend means one thing ; whilst *this is a picture of my friend's* means another thing. The latter, expressed in full, would be *this is a picture of my friend's (pictures)*.

The enemy of the emperor means a man who is hostile to the emperor. *An enemy of the emperor's* means one of the emperor's enemies.

A notion of my brother means a notion concerning my brother. *A notion of my brother's* means one (amongst others) of my brother's notions.

In all sentences like those just quoted (*a notion of my brother's*, &c.) there are two substantives : one which the article *a* agrees with, and which is expressed ; and one by which *brother's* is governed, and which is omitted, as being understood.

§ 326. In all these sentences too (and in all like them) the word *of* means *amongst* (or *from amongst*) : as *this is one from amongst Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries* ; *this is one from amongst my friend's pictures* ; *this is one from amongst (or from out of) my brother's notions*.

§ 327. *Whose books are these (books) ? They are John's (books), or they are some (books) of John's (books).* The word governed by *of* is not *John's* but *books* (or *the books*). In Latin the sentence would be *quidam de libris Johannis*.

As the words *Newton's, friend's, emperor's, brother's, John's* can stand by themselves, unaccompanied by the noun that governs them, (that substantive being understood,) they may be called possessive cases construed absolutely.

Obs.—The word *absolutely*, used in this sense, is somewhat different from the word *absolute* as used in the sequel.

§ 328. The reader is referred to § 325. In that section the words *Newton's, friend's, emperor's, brother's, John's* are substantives, and substantives in the possessive case.

In the present section the words *my, thy, our, your, her, their* are precisely in the same condition ; that is, they are possessive cases, only the possessive cases of pronouns.

Now, although we can say *this is a discovery of Newton's, &c.*, we cannot say *this is a discovery of my, this is a picture of thy*, notwithstanding that the one class of words consists as much of possessive cases as the other.

Again, by filling up the sentence and inserting a second substantive, which in § 325 was allowed to be left out, we are able even with the words *my, thy, &c.* to construct sentences.

This is a discovery of
(or from amongst) New-
ton's (*discoveries*).

This is an enemy of (or
from amongst) the em-
peror's (*enemies*).

This is a discovery of
(or from amongst) my
discoveries

This is an enemy of
(or from amongst) my
enemies.

In these two columns the word *discoveries* is necessary to be repeated in the second, whilst in the first there is no such necessity. The reason is, because in the second the possessive cases *my* and *thy* are the possessive cases of pronouns, whilst in the first they are the possessive cases of substantives.

§ 329. What, however, is the reason why this difference is thus made between the pronouns and the substantives in respect to their possessive cases?

This we find, more or less, in the following facts.

1. The circumstance of the words being possessive cases is less strongly marked in the words *my*, *thy*, *our*, *your*, *their*, than it is in the words *Newton's*, *friend's*, *emperor's*, *brother's*. The latter words have the well-known sign 's, which is wanting in the former ones. This absence of the sign of the possessive in the words in question (*thy*, *our*, &c.) naturally leads to their being looked upon as something different from possessive cases. In the Old English the genitive was less exclusively expressed by 's than it is now, and at that time the words like *my* and *our*, &c. were perceived to be possessive cases more clearly than they are at present. Now, when they were more clearly perceived to be possessive cases, they were also used as such. In this stage of the English they are occasionally found independent of the substantive.

The mastery of the
field is John's (*mastery*);
or,

John's (*mastery*) is the
mastery of the field.

The mastery of the
field is our mastery;
or,

Our mastery is the
mastery of the field.

With the word *John's* in the possessive case, strongly marked, we can either omit or put in the word *mastery*. With the word *our* in the possessive case, weakly marked, we have no choice as to the omission or insertion of the same word. Such is the case in the present stage of English. This was *not*, however, the case in the Old English. In that state of our language there were, in respect to the words in question, two points of difference from the present English: — 1. The proportion of possessives ending in *-s*, to possessives not ending in *-s*, was smaller. 2. The words *our* and *your* were *our-e*, *your-e*; forms wherein the genitive character is more exhibited. Now, in the period in point we actually find such sentences as the following:

If he *passes* with honour,
Our is the dishonour:
 or,
 Gif he *passeth* with honour,
Oure is the deshonour.
Kyng Alisaunder, 3867.

Our is the mastery of the field:
 or,
*Oure*¹ is the maistry of the felde.
Kyng Alisaunder, 2162.

My and *thy* were not found in this sense, because, compared with *our* and *your*, their possessive character was less prominently marked; just as the possessive character of *our* and *your* is less prominently marked than that of *John's* and *friend's*. This is one reason (amongst others) why the genitive cases of pronouns

¹ See a paper of Mr. Guest's, read before the Philological Society, 1843, where the whole subject is fully discussed.

cannot be used *absolutely*, whilst those of substantives can be so used.

§ 330. We now come to the pronouns *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, and *hers*, which are called absolute, or true possessive pronouns.

This book is <i>John's</i> .	This book is <i>my book</i> .
This picture is the <i>owner's</i> .	This picture is <i>thy picture</i> .
This dress is <i>Eliza's</i> .	This dress is <i>her dress</i> .
These pens are <i>the students'</i> .	These pens are <i>our</i> (or <i>their</i>) <i>pens</i> .

John's, *owner's*, *Eliza's*, *students'*, are the possessive cases of substantives.

My, *thy*, *her*, *our*, are the possessive cases of pronouns.

Now, the expressions in the first column are compendious, because the possessive case of the substantive stands absolutely ;

Whilst the expressions in the second column are not compendious, because the possessive cases of the pronouns do *not* stand absolutely :

Hence, on the part of the possessive cases of the pronouns, there is a loss of compendiousness.

Now, how is this loss of compendiousness made good ? We shall see this by comparing the two columns following :

This book is <i>my book</i> .	This book is <i>mine</i> .
This picture is <i>thy picture</i> .	This picture is <i>thine</i> .
This dress is <i>her dress</i> .	This dress is <i>hers</i> .
These pens are <i>our pens</i> .	These pens are <i>ours</i> .
These clothes are <i>your clothes</i> .	These clothes are <i>yours</i> .
These horses are <i>their horses</i> .	These horses are <i>theirs</i> .

So also, speaking of *books*, we can say *mine are here*, instead of *my books are here*. Speaking of a *garden*, we can say *ours is handsome*, instead of *our garden is handsome*, &c. &c.

In these cases the words *mine, thine, ours, yours, hers, theirs*, are, in respect to meaning, adjectives. This we may see by the following examples: *the quality of these things is good*; *the price of these articles is high*; *the nature of the subject is doubtful*; *the conduct of the parties was equivocal*. Here the words *good, high, doubtful, equivocal*, are adjectives. In all the sentences the expression is elliptic. In all the sentences the full expression would be *the quality of these things is a good quality*; *the price of these articles is a high price*; *the nature of this subject is a doubtful nature*; *the conduct of the parties is equivocal conduct*. Now, the part that is played by the genitive forms *Newton's, friend's*, in § 325, is here played by the adjectives *high, equivocal, &c.*; so that an adjective and a genitive case are equally capable of being taken absolutely.

We are, however, unable to use words like *mine, thine, ours, yours, theirs, hers, &c.* in all cases where an adjective would be used: *e. g.* we can say, *these are good books*; but not *these are mine books*, or *these are thine books, &c.*

In other words, though words like *mine, thine, &c.* are adjectives, they are adjectives that can only be used absolutely.

This arises from the habit of using the corresponding forms *my, thy, &c.* in all other cases.

In the old writers, expressions like *father mine, mother mine, &c.* really occur; where it is remarkable

that the absolute possessive pronoun generally comes after the substantive.

Obs. — *His* and *its* are equivocal or ambiguous forms. We can say *this is his book*, or *this book is his*.

§ 331. *Construction of the word self in composition with pronouns.* — 1. In the words *my-self*, *thy-self*, *our-selves*, *your-selves*, the word *self* (or *selves*) governs the words *my*, *thy*, *our*, *your*, just as in the expression *John's hat* the word *hat* governs the word *John's*; so that *my*, *thy*, are possessive cases.

2. This is not the case with the words *him-self* and *them-selves*. Here the words *self* and *selves* are in apposition with the words *him* and *them* respectively; so that the words *him* and *them* are objective cases.

3. The word *her-self* is ambiguous; since it is doubtful whether *her* be a possessive or an objective case.

4. The word *it-self* is also ambiguous; since it is doubtful whether it originated in *it-self* or *its-self*.

This inconsistency in the use of the word *self* in composition with pronouns is as old as the time of the Anglo-Saxons.

Obs.—Whenever any other word comes between the personal pronoun and the word *self*, the personal pronoun is *always* in the genitive case: *my own self*, *thy own self*, *our own selves*, *your own selves*, *his* (not *him*) *own self*, *her own self*, *its* (not *it*) *own self*, *their* (not *them*) *own selves*.

Obs.—Whenever the word *self* is in the nominative case, the personal pronoun should, properly, be in the possessive case: *myself is weak*; *thyself is weak*; *ourselves are strong*; *yourselves are strong*; *his* (not *him*) *self is strong*; *herself is fair*; *its self is good*; *themselves*

are bad. The reason of this is to be found in § 294 and § 295. When two substantives come together, they must be *either* in apposition or government. Now words like *himself* (when *self* is a nominative case) are neither in one state nor the other. This fact is often overlooked, even by good writers.

For further observations upon the compounds of *self*, see § 350.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

§ 332. The chief points in the Syntax of Verbs are; (1.) the Concord of Number; (2.) the Concord of Person.

§ 333. *Concord of Number.* — Whenever a single object is spoken of, the verb is used in the singular number; as *I speak, thou speakest, he speaks; the man thinks; the horse neighs, &c.*

Whenever more objects than one are spoken of, the verb is put in the plural number; as *we speak, ye speak, they speak; the men think; the horses neigh, &c.*

In each of these cases the verb is in the same number with the substantive or pronoun preceding, and, consequently, may be said to *agree* (or to have *concord*) with them in respect to number.

Observe. — Two nouns, meaning different things, and connected by a conjunction, referring to a single verb, require that verb to be in the plural number; as *the man and horse walk, the dog and stag are running, the father and son read.*

§ 334. *Concord of Person.* — Where a person speaks of himself, the verb is in the first person singular; as *I read, I think.*

Where a person speaks *to* another person, the verb is in the second person singular; as *thou readest, thou thinkest*.

Where a person speaks *of* any other person (or any other object whatever), the verb is in the third person singular; as *he reads, the man reads, the woman reads, the child reads, the man thinks, the horse neighs, the dog barks, &c.*

Where more persons than one speak of themselves, the verb is in the first person plural; as *we read, we think*. It is the same thing if a single person, speaking of what he does (or did) along with others, speaks of himself in the plural number.

Where more persons than one are spoken *to*, the verb is in the second person plural; as *ye read, ye think*. It is the same thing if a single person is spoken to as to what he does (or did) along with others.

Where more persons (or objects) than one are spoken *of*, the verb is in the third person plural; as *they read, the men read, the women read, the children read, the men think, the horses neigh, the dogs bark, &c.*

In each of these cases the verb is in the same person with the substantive or pronoun preceding, and, consequently, may be said to agree (or to have *concord*) with them in respect to person.

§ 335. *Government of Verbs*.—Verbs are of two sorts; (1.) transitive; (2.) intransitive.

In saying *I strike the iron*, the verb *strike* denotes an action. It also does something more: it denotes an action that has an effect upon an object; since the word *iron* is the name of an object, and the word *strike* is the name of an action that affects that object. In this case

the action may be said to *pass off* from the agent (*i. e. the person who strikes*) to the object (*i. e. the iron*). Verbs expressing action capable of affecting objects are called Transitive Verbs; from the Latin word *transire* = *to pass over*.

In saying *I walk*, the verb *walk* denotes an action. It does not, however, denote an action that has any effect upon any object whatever. The action alone, in its simplest form, is stated to take place. Verbs like *walk* are called *Intransitive*, because no action can be said to pass off from them to any object.

Obs.—Besides the verbs transitive and intransitive, it must be remembered that there is also the verb substantive. (See §§ 203, 204.)

Respecting the Government of these three sorts of verbs, there are the three following rules :

1. Transitive verbs always govern the substantive in the objective case; as *I strike him, he strikes me, they teach us, the man leads the horse, &c.*

2. Intransitive verbs govern no case at all; as *I sleep, I walk, I think, &c.*

3. Verbs substantive govern the nominative case; as *I am he, it is I, it was she, &c.*

Observe.—The same word has often two meanings, one of which is transitive, and the other intransitive; as,

1. *I move*,—where the verb is intransitive, and denotes the mere act of motion. 2. *I move my limbs*,—where the verb is transitive, and where the action affects a certain object (*my limbs*).

1. *I walk*,—where the verb is intransitive, and denotes the mere act of walking. 2. *I walk the horse*,—where the words *I walk* are equivalent to *I cause to*

walk, and are also transitive, denoting an action affecting a certain object (*the horse*).

This fact of the same verb having transitive and intransitive meanings must be continually borne in mind ; otherwise, transitive verbs will appear to be without an objective case, and intransitive verbs to govern one.

§ 336. *Syntax in respect to Mood.*—When an absolute command is made, the verb is used in the imperative mood ; as *go ! walk ! stand ! do not go ! go not ! walk not ! do this ! come hither !*

When two verbs come together, the latter is used in the infinitive mood ; as *I wish to go, I long to speak, I have to write, let me go, dare you come ? when shall I go ? &c.*

When an action is mentioned as absolutely taking place, or as absolutely having taken place, the verb is used in the indicative mood ; as *I speak, thou speakest, he speaks ; we speak, ye speak, they speak.*

When an action is mentioned as taking place under certain conditions and contingencies, rather than as absolutely taking place, the verb is used in the conjunctive mood ; as *if he speak, if he move, if he stand ; not if he speak-s, move-s, stand-s.*

§ 337. *Syntax of the Infinitive Mood.*—A verb in the infinitive mood is preceded by the particle *to* ; as *I begin to speak, he wishes to run, he fears to move.*

§ 338. Except in the case of the words *may, can, will, shall, let, must, do.*

I may go ; not I may to go.

I might go ; not I might to go.

I can move ; not I can to move.

I could move ; not I could to move.

I will speak ; not I will to speak.

I would speak ; not I would to speak.

I shall wait ; not I shall to wait.

I should wait ; not I should to wait.

Let me go ; not let me to go.

I do speak ; not I do to speak.

I did speak ; not I did to speak.

Also with the verb *dare* when it is intransitive, and means to *venture* ; as

"I dare do all that doth become a man :

Who dares do more, is none."—SHAKESPEAR.

When, however, it signifies to *challenge* or *defy*, and is transitive, it requires *to* to accompany the infinitive mood following ; as

"I dare thee but to breathe upon my love."

SHAKESPEAR.

Also, with the following verbs, — *see, hear, feel, bid, have, need.*

Thou shalt not see thy brother's ox or his ass fall down by the way.

We heard him say, I will destroy this temple.

I feel the pain abate.

He bid her alight.

"I would fain have any one name to me that tongue that any one can speak as he should do by the rules of Grammar."—LOCKE.

We need only go to London.

§ 339. *Syntax of the Conjunctive Mood.* — Certain words denote contingency or uncertainty. The verb that accompanies these words denotes an act that *may* or *may not* take place ; that is, an act which will take place under certain conditions and contingencies. These

words are, *except, lest, so, before, ere, till, if, however, though, although, unless, whosoever, whatever, whether, that; as,*

1. "Except I be by *Silvia* in the night,
There is no music in the nightingale."

SHAKESPEARE.

2. "Let us go and sacrifice to the Lord our God, lest he fall upon us with pestilence."—OLD TESTAMENT.

3. ——— "Revenge back on itself recoils.

Let it. I reckon not, so it light well aimed."—MILTON.

4. "Let there be some more test made of my metal,
Before so noble and great a figure
Be stamped upon it."—SHAKESPEARE.

5. "Seek out his wickedness till thou find none."—OLD TESTAMENT.

6. If this be the case.

7. However it be.

8. "Though our outward man perish."—OLD TESTAMENT.

9. "Although my house be not so with God."—OLD TESTAMENT.

10. "He shall not eat of the holy thing unless he wash his flesh with water."—OLD TESTAMENT.

11. "He that troubleth you shall bear his judgement, whosoever he be."—OLD TESTAMENT.

12. "Whatever be our fate, yet let us try."—POPE.

13. Whether it were *I* or *they*.

14. "Beware that thou bring not my son thither."—OLD TESTAMENT.

If *that* be understood, the construction is the same: as *see thou tell no man*; equivalent to *see that thou tell no man*.

Obs.—As none of the above *always* denote contingency, they are not *always* followed by a conjunctive mood.

§ 340. When two verbs are connected by the conjunction *that*, they are both in the same tense; as *I do this that I may gain by it*; where *do* and *may* are both present tenses. On the other hand, in the sentence *I did this that I might gain by it*, the two words *did* and *might* are both preterites.

§ 341. *Number.* — Two or more nouns, each in the singular number, connected by means of the conjunction *and*, require the verb to be in the plural number; as *the father and son are* (not *is*) *at home*.

§ 342. Two or more nouns, each in the singular number, connected by means of a preposition, require the verb to be in the singular number; as *the father, with the son, is* (not *are*) *at home*.

§ 343. Two or more nouns, each in the singular number, connected by means of the conjunction *or* or *nor*, require the verb to be in the singular number: as *either the father or the son is coming*; *neither the father nor the son is coming*.

§ 344. Collective substantives, although in the singular number, may agree with a verb in the plural number; as *the multitude pursue pleasure*.

§ 345. In respect to substantives like *alms*, &c. the syntax has been noticed in pp. 62, 63, 64.

§ 346. *Construction of it with a Verb.* — *It*, followed by a verb substantive and a noun, requires the verb to be in the singular number, whatever may be the number of the noun: as *it is* (not *are*) *we*; *it is* (not *are*) *the men who never reason*.

§ 347. *Construction of there with a Verb.* — *There*,

followed by a verb substantive and a noun, requires the verb to be in the same number with the noun ; as *there are* (not *is*) *men that never reason*.

§ 348. *Syntax of the Persons*. — A verb is always accompanied by either a substantive or a pronoun ; as *I seem, thou thinkest, he seems, she seems, it seems, we seem, ye seem, they seem, horses seem, men think, the horse seems, the man thinks, it seems to me*.

In several languages the pronoun is omitted, in which case the verb stands alone. If the English language followed, in this respect, the same principle as the Latin, we could say simply *think* (for *I think*), *thinkest* (for *thou thinkest*), *thinketh* or *thinks* (for *he thinketh* or *thinks*). In this case there would be omission of the pronoun.

§ 349. In three words in English this omission of the pronoun really takes place ; only, however, in the third person singular, and with the pronoun *it* ; as,

1. *Me-seems*. This is equivalent to *it seems to me*.

2. *Me-thinks*. This also is equivalent to *it seems to me*. In this compound the word *thinks* is of different origin from the word *think*, in expressions like *I think*, or *he thinks*. In A. S. there were two forms, *pencan* = *to think*, and *pincan* = *to seem*. It is from the latter form that the word *methinks* originates.

3. *Me listeth*, or *me lists*. This is equivalent to *it pleases me*. In A. S. *lystan* = *to wish, choose, please, delight*.

These three verbs are called Impersonal, because they can be used without a pronoun expressive of person.

§ 350. When a compound of the word *self* stands alone, it requires the verb to be in the third person ; as

myself is (not *am*) *weak*, *thyself is* (not *art*) *weak*, *myself speaks* (not *speak*), *thyself speaks* (not *speakest*). In this case the word *self* follows the construction of any other substantive, and we say *myself is weak*, just as we would say *my body is weak*. This rule is often violated, even by good writers ; as,

“ I only know myself *am* weak.” — POPE.

§ 351. When a compound of the word *self* is joined to a pronoun of the first or second person, the verb agrees with that pronoun ; as *I myself am* (not *is*) *weak*, *thou thyself art* (not *is*) *weak*.

§ 352. *Syntax of the Verb have with the Past Participle.* — This occurs in phrases like *I have spoken*, *I have slept*, *I have moved*, *I have written* ; where *have* is in the present tense, and where *spoken*, *slept*, *moved*, *written*, are past passive participles. The phrases *I had spoken*, *I had moved*, &c. are in the same predicament, except that there *had* is in the past tense. *I had been moved*, *I shall have struck*, are modifications of the same construction, the phrase being somewhat more complex. Now, in all the phrases quoted above, the word *have* (or *had*) has the same power. It indicates past time. It indicates past time, even although it be itself in the present tense (*I have written*). As the natural meaning of the word *have* denotes *possession*, it may naturally be asked how it comes to mean *past time*. The difficulty that here arises, becomes more visible, if we substitute for the word *have* some word of similar meaning, such as *hold*, *possess*, or *own*. To say *I own written a letter*, *I possess written a letter*, *I hold written a letter*, sounds as nonsense ; at any rate, it gives no such a meaning as is given by the words *I have written a*

letter. A little consideration, however, will shew how the power of expressing *past time* may arise out of the idea of *possession*. In the first place it is very evident, that, in order for a person to possess an object, the object must be in existence. We cannot say that a man *has a written letter*, without also implying that *a letter has been written*. Hence the idea expressed by the words *I have a written letter*, or *I have a letter written*, is allied to the idea expressed by *I have written a letter*. If such be the origin of the phrase *I have written a letter*, five things ought to be the case.

1st. That the word *written* should have no connection with the pronoun governing the word ; *e. g.* in the phrase *I have written* it should have no connection with the word *I*, nor in the phrase *he has written* any reference to the pronoun *he*.

2nd. That it should be connected with the substantive that follows ; *e. g.* *I have written a letter* should be equal to *I have a letter written*.

3rd. That in respect to case it should agree with that substantive ; *e. g.* in the phrases *I have slain a cow*, *I have struck a bull*, *I have slain men*, the word *slain* should be in the accusative case throughout, inasmuch as it is governed by the verb *have*.

4th. That in respect to number it should agree with the same substantive. In the phrases *I have spurred a horse*, and *I have spurred horses*, the first *spurred* should be singular, the second *spurred* plural, in order to agree with the singular substantive *horse* on one hand, and with the plural substantive *horses* on the other hand.

5th. That in respect to gender it should agree with the same substantive. Now, the participle joined to

the verb *have* actually comes under all these conditions, since it is an accusative case, taking the number and gender of the noun with which it agrees. At least such it was originally, and such we must now consider it, if we wish to have the true history of the expression. This fact would have lain on the surface, and have been seen at once, if it were not for the deficiency of inflection in the English language. Just like the adjective *good* (*good boy, good girl ; good boys, good girls*), the participle *written* has the same form for all cases, genders, and numbers ; and this conceals the fact of its following the case, gender, and number of the substantive with which it is connected. Add to this the circumstance that the participle has in the present English a peculiar position in the sentence. The following order, *I have a horse ridden*, or *I have a ridden horse*, connects the fact of a *horse having been ridden* with the idea of *possession*, as indicated by the word *have*, much more than the current phrase, which runs thus, *I have ridden a horse*. The proofs that the view above is the true one are as follows :

1. In certain other languages we find other words besides *have*, expressive of possession, used for the sake of denoting past time ; e. g. in Spanish the word *tengo*=*I hold*, and in Old High German and Old Saxon the word *eigan*=*to own*. In these tongues, phrases like *I hold ridden, I own ridden,=I have ridden*, are actually existing.

2. In Old High German, Old Saxon, and Anglo-Saxon, we have the order of the participle and substantive occasionally reversed ; e. g. instead of saying *I have forgotten it, I have chosen him, I have made one*, the

phrases ran, *I have it forgotten* (i. e. *I possess it as a forgotten thing*), *I have him chosen* (i. e. *I possess him as a chosen person*), *I have one made* (i. e. *I have one as a made thing*).

3. That in languages where there is a sufficient amount of inflection to exhibit the participle as agreeing in case, number, and gender with the substantive to which it applies, such agreement is exhibited. In the Latin of the Middle Ages we find expressions like *litteram scriptam habeo*=*I have, as a thing written, a letter*, or *I have written a letter*.

Respecting expressions like the one in question, there is yet one point to be explained. This concerns the gender.

In the two sentences, *I have ridden a horse*, and *I have ridden a mare*, the word *ridden* is in the same gender, although *horse* is masculine, and *mare* is feminine. Moreover, the word *ridden* is in the *neuter* gender, and, as such, equally different in gender from the two substantives *horse* and *mare*. This is the case not only with the sentences in question, but with all others like them. Whatever may be the gender of the substantive, the participle that follows the word *have* is always *neuter*.

Apparently this violates the statement made above, viz. that the participle agreed with the noun in case, number, and gender. In reality it does not do this. All sentences like the one in question are elliptical, the word *thing* being understood ; so that

I have written a letter is equivalent to *I possess a letter as a written thing*. *I have ridden a horse* is equivalent to *I possess a horse as a ridden thing*. *I have ridden a*

mare is equivalent to *I possess a mare as a ridden thing*.

Hence it is not with the substantive that appears in the sentence, but with the substantive *thing* understood, that the participle agrees. As such, it is in the neuter gender.

§ 353. *Syntax of the Verb Substantive in the present tense with the past participle passive.*—In propositions like *I am moved, he is beaten, we are struck, it is given*, the verb substantive is joined to the participle passive; and so there arise phrases which have the power of a verb in the passive voice. It is well known that in some languages these ideas are expressed, not by the combination of the verb substantive and participle, but by a single word: *e. g.* in Latin, *moveor* :=*I am moved*; *percutimur* = *we are struck*; *datur* = *it is given*. In the circumstance that the phrases above have the power of passive forms, there is nothing peculiar. Beyond this there is, however, a peculiarity. The participles *moved, beaten, struck, given*, are participles not of a present but of a *past* tense; and hence the proper meaning of the phrases given above (and of all others like them) should be very different from what it really is. *I am moved* should mean, not *I am in the act of being moved*, but *I am a person who has been moved*;—*he is beaten* should mean, not *he is a person who is in the act of suffering a beating*, but *one who has suffered a beating*: in other words, the sense of the combination should be *past*, and not *present*. By a comparison between the English and Latin languages in respect to this combination of the verb substantive and participle this anomaly on the part of the English becomes very apparent.

The Latin word *motus* is exactly equivalent to the English word *moved*. Each is a participle of the passive voice, and of the past tense. Besides this, *sum* in Latin equals *I am* in English. Now, the Latin phrase *motus sum* is equivalent, not to the English combination *I am moved*, but to the combination *I have been moved*; i.e. it has a past and not a present sense. In Greek the difference is plainer still,* because in Greek there are two participles passive, one for the present, and another for the past tense; e.g. *τυπτομενος εμι* (*typtomēnos eimi*) = *I am one in the act of undergoing a beating*; *τετυμμενος εμι* = *I am one who has undergone a beating*. The reason for this confusion in English lies in the absence of a passive form for the present. In Mœso-Gothic there existed the forms *slahada* = *he (she or it) is beaten* (*percutitur, τυπτεται*), and *slahanda*, = *they are beaten* (*percutiuntur, τυππονται*) (*typtontai*). These were true passive forms. In like manner there occurred *gibada* = *he (she or it) is given* (*datur*), &c. &c. Now, as long as there was a proper form for the present, like those in Mœso-Gothic, the combinations of the present tense of the verb substantive with the participle past passive had the same sense as in Latin and Greek; that is, it indicated past time: e.g. *ga-bundan-s im* = *I have been bound* (not *I am bound*), *gibans ist* = *he (she or it) has been given* (not *is given*), &c. When the passive form, however, was lost, the combination took the sense of a present tense.

§ 354. The reader is referred to §§ 94, 95, 96, 97, and more especially to § 100. Besides this, he is recommended to make himself again familiar with the structure of propositions. (See §§ 86, &c.)

Take three words and form a proposition ; as *summer is pleasant*. Prefix to the word *summer* any word from amongst the following — *cheerfully, warmly, brightly, mildly*. Ask what sort of sense is made by the combination. The answer will be, that, whether we say *cheerfully summer is pleasant*, or *summer cheerfully is pleasant*, we can only get a meaning by taking the word *cheerfully* along with the word *pleasant* ; in other words, that, although we may talk of *cheerful summer*, we cannot talk of *cheerfully summer*. Now, what applies to *summer* applies to a vast number of other words.

1. In the first place, they cannot form by themselves the subjects of propositions ; since we cannot say, *cheerfully is pleasant*, or *cheerfully is summer*.

2. Neither can they form by themselves the predicates of propositions ; since we cannot say *summer is cheerfully*.

3. Nor yet can they form the copulas of propositions ; since we cannot say *summer cheerfully pleasant*.

4. Nor yet can they form the copula and predicate at once, as is done by the words quoted in § 95 : we cannot say *summer cheerfully* in the way we say *summer cheers*.

Speaking generally, they cannot constitute *by themselves* any of the parts of a proposition.

Although, however, they cannot do this, they can combine with certain words which *can* constitute some of the parts of a proposition, and so form subordinate parts of subjects and predicates.

The class of words with which words like *cheerfully* combine are the adjectives (§ 104). We can say *summer is cheerfully pleasant, summer is ardently hot, man is certainly mortal, John is tolerably good, James is*

exceedingly *bad*, *this is enormously big*, *that is contemptibly little*, &c.

They also combine with participles (see §§ 205, 206, 207, 208, and also the words in the third column of the list under § 92). *He is hunting eagerly*, *we are fishing earnestly*, *they are shooting continually*, *the sun is shining brightly*, *the wife is weeping immoderately*, &c.

By referring to §§ 94, 95, 96, 97, we shall see that in every verb there is contained either an adjective or a participle. Now, words like *cheerfully* can combine with verbs. This they do on the strength of the adjective or participle involved in the verb — *John eats heartily*, *James drinks deeply*, *he speaks loudly*, *she breathes difficultly*, *he lives piously*, *he died calmly*, *he fears exceedingly*, &c.

As it is generally with the verb that words like *cheerfully* are combined, they are called *Adverbs*.

An adverb is a word that can enter into a proposition only when combined with an adjective, a participle, or a verb; as

Man is certainly mortal.

John is certainly riding.

John certainly rides.

§ 355. The following words, along with many others, are adverbs :

once	never	badly
twice	ever	well
thrice	yet	much
now	here	truly
then	there	brightly, &c.

§ 356. Adverbs are incapable of governing any case.

§ 357. Words, originally nouns, are capable of being used in an adverbial sense ; as *seldom*, *unawares*, &c.

Combinations of words are capable of being used in an adverbial sense ; as *to-day*, *yester-day*, *now-a-days*, *not-at-all*, &c.

Adjectives in the neuter gender are, above all other parts of speech, used in an adverbial sense, and that not only in English but in most other languages ; as *well*, *better*, *ill*, *worse*, and all the words ending in *-ly* (*bright-ly*, *brave-ly*). See p. 128.

In expressions like *the sun shines bright*, the word *bright*, an adjective, is equivalent in meaning to the adverb *brightly*. In English there is, with adjectives, no distinction of gender ; if there were, *bright*, and words like it, (used adverbially,) would be neuters.

§ 358. Adverbs are susceptible of the degrees of comparison. This takes place in three manners :

1. By adding *-er*, or *-est*, to the adverb ; as *bright-ly*, *bright-li-er*, *bright-li-est* ; *tight-ly*, *tight-li-er*, *tight-li-est*.

2. By taking the comparative or superlative form of an adjective, and using it adverbially ; as *the sun shines brighter to-day than it did yesterday*, and *probably it will shine brightest to-morrow*.

3. By prefixing the word *more* ; as *the sun shines more brightly to-day than it did yesterday*, and *will probably shine most brightly to-morrow*.

Of these three methods of denoting the degrees of comparison of adverbs, the last is most used by the best authorities.

§ 359. *Prepositions*. — Besides the adverbs, there is another class of words that can only enter into the construction of a proposition when combined with other

words. Take the word *to* or *from*, and deal with it in the way that the adverb *cheerfully* was dealt with.

We cannot make it the subject of a proposition. We cannot say *to is summer*, or *from is summer*.

Neither can we make it the predicate of a proposition. We cannot say *summer is to*, or *summer is from*.

Nor yet can it become a copula. We cannot say *summer to pleasant*, *summer from pleasant*.

Just as little can either *to* or *from* form copula and predicate at once. We cannot say *summer to*, *summer from*, in the same way that we say *summer cheers*.

In order to admit words like *to* or *from* into a proposition, we must combine them with other words.

Now, words like *to* and *from* will not combine with the same parts of speech as words like *cheerfully* combine with.

1. They will not combine with adjectives. We cannot say *summer is from pleasant*, *summer is to hot*.

2. They will not combine with participles. We cannot say *he is hunting from*, *they are shooting to*.

3. They will not combine with verbs. We cannot say *he comes from*, *he drinks to*.

The class of words with which words like *to* and *from* will combine are the substantives and pronouns. We can say *he comes from London*, *he comes from the country*, *he drinks to me*, *she drinks to him*, &c.

§ 360. All words like *to* and *from* require a substantive or a pronoun to be combined with them.

§ 361. In most languages, where a word like *to* and *from* is combined with a substantive or pronoun, the word like *to* and *from* comes first, whilst the substantive

or pronoun follows after; as *he comes from London*, not *he comes London from*.

§ 362. Owing to the fact of words like *to* and *from*, when combined with a substantive or pronoun, coming, in most languages, first, they are called Prepositions, from the Latin words *præ* (*before*) and *positus* (*placed*), or words *placed first*. In languages where they *follow* the substantive or pronoun, the term preposition is somewhat inapplicable.

§ 363. A preposition is a word that can enter into a proposition only when combined with a substantive or pronoun; as

John is going to London.

James is coming from London.

§ 364. The following words, along with several others, are prepositions — *in, on, of, at, up, by, to, for, from, till, with, through*.

§ 365. Every preposition governs a case; that is, every preposition is followed by a substantive or a pronoun in some case or other.

§ 366. In different languages different prepositions govern different cases. In the present English they govern the objective case exclusively; as *the son of the father, he speaks to him*. We cannot say *he speaks to he*; and, if we say *the son of the father's*, our meaning is different from what it is when we say *the son of the father*.

§ 367. Several words are sometimes adverbs and sometimes prepositions. They are adverbs when they are destitute of case: they are prepositions when they govern a case.

Adverbs.	Prepositions.
<i>Put it in.</i>	<i>Put it in the box.</i>
<i>Get on.</i>	<i>Get on the horse.</i>
<i>Go up.</i>	<i>Go up the tree.</i>
<i>Pass by.</i>	<i>Pass by the place.</i>
<i>Cut through.</i>	<i>Cut through the armour.</i>

§ 368. Combinations of words are capable of being used as prepositions ; as *up-on*, *round-about*, *a-cross*, *instead-of*, *be-tween*, *with-in*, *with-out*, &c.

§ 369. Certain prepositions, combined with substantives and pronouns, are equivalent in sense to cases. Between the expressions *the son of the father* and *the father's son* there is no great difference of meaning. This circumstance has induced many writers to call the combination of *a father* a possessive case. This is erroneous. The true view of the expression of *a father* is, that it is an objective case governed by a preposition, forming a combination equivalent (or nearly so) to the possessive case *father's*.

§ 370. *Conjunctions*.—The following sentences contain, each of them, *two* propositions, and between each of these two propositions it may be seen that there is a connecting word. *Rome is enslaved, because Cæsar is ambitious,—the sun shines, and the sky is clear,—the moon is intervening, therefore the sun is in eclipse,—it is not day, but it is night,—the town was taken, although a hero defended it.*

A word that connects two separate propositions is called a conjunction ; from the Latin word *conjungo* = *I join together*.

Every conjunction, although it appears to connect only

separate *words*, really connects separate *propositions*. In sentences like *the sun and moon shine, the father and the son talk*, there is the appearance of being only a single proposition, so that all that is connected by means of the conjunction *and* appears to be the words *sun and moon, father and son*. This, however, is not the case in reality. The sentence *the sun and moon shine* contains in fact two separate propositions ; one concerning the *sun* (namely that it *shines*), the other concerning the *moon* (namely that it *shines*). The same holds good with the sentence *the father and son talk*. One proposition states that *the father talks* ; the other that *the son talks*. The full expressions would be,—

The sun shines and the moon shines,

The father talks and the son talks ;

for these,

The sun and moon shine,

The father and son talk,

are only compendious forms.

§ 371. The same is the case with words where the conjunction *than* occurs ; as,

This is sharper than that.

I like you better than he.

I like you better than him.

Each of these sentences is elliptical. In full they would be,

This is sharper than that is sharp.

I like you better than he likes you.

I like you better than I like him.

Here, as above, there are two propositions connected by the conjunction *than*.

It is, therefore, essential to the nature of a conjunction that it connect not only words but propositions.

§ 372. No conjunction ever governs a case. Certain apparent exceptions to this statement will be noticed in § 375.

§ 373. Words originally other parts of speech are sometimes used as conjunctions ; as *that, except, whether, &c.*

§ 374. Combinations of words are sometimes used as conjunctions ; as *not-with-standing, never-the-less.*

§ 375. In the following sentences, taken from good writers, the word *than* occurs followed by an objective case, and apparently violating § 372.

You are a much greater loser than me.—SWIFT.

She suffers more than me.—SWIFT.

A stone is weighty, and sand heavy, but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both.—OLD TEST.

Thou art a girl as much brighter than her,

As he was a poet sublimer than me.—PRIOR.

None of these expressions are correct ; or, if so, they are correct only under the idea that the word *than* is sometimes a conjunction (when it cannot govern a case), and sometimes a preposition (when it can govern a case).

§ 376. In what case the word following *than* ought to be, can always be determined by filling up the sentence. Thus, *thou art wiser than I*, is equivalent to *thou art wiser than I am*,—*you love him more than I*, to *you love him more than I love him*,—*you love him more than me*, to *you love him more than you love me*.

The case of a noun following *than* is regulated, not by that word, but by the verb that would occur if the sentence were complete.

§ 377. The conjunction *that* is often omitted, even by good writers ; as

I fear it comes too much from the heart.—ADDISON.
for

I fear that it comes too much from the heart.

§ 378.—*Interjections.*—The last class of words contains those that neither connect different propositions, nor yet form parts of separate ones. *Ah ! Oh ! O ! alas ! pish ! tush !* We use these words, but we use them without the idea of making any statement or assertion.

Words that form neither parts of a proposition, nor connect two different propositions, are called *Interjections*.

§ 379.—Government is of three sorts :

1. Government of a noun by a noun ; as *the father's son*.

2. Government of a noun by a verb ; as *I strike him*.

3. Government of a noun by a preposition ; as *the father of the son ; give this to him*.

§ 380. Sometimes the expression is incomplete, and the governing noun, the governing verb, or the governing preposition is omitted or understood ; as,

1. *This was bought at Rundle and Bridge's ;* where the governing noun *shop* is omitted by ellipsis. See § 297.

2. *I like you better than him ;* where the full expression would be *I like you better than I like him*, so that the verb *like*, governing *him*, is understood.

3. *I gave him the book ;* where the full expression would be *I gave to him the book*, so that the governing preposition *to* is omitted.

§ 381. But besides expressions like the ones just mentioned, there are others where there is neither government by means of a noun, verb, or preposition, nor yet any ellipsis or omission. In this case the noun is said to stand *absolutely*.

§ 382. Nouns standing absolutely are of two sorts :
1. Those originating in an Accusative case. 2. Those originating in a Dative case.

§ 383. In expressing *distance* or *duration*, either in *time* or *space*, we use the noun absolutely : as *he walked ten miles (i.e. the space of ten miles)* ; *he stood three hours (i.e. the space of three hours.)* Here the words *stood* and *walk* are intransitive ; so that it is not by them that the words *miles* and *hours* are governed. They stand absolutely. Although not distinguished in form from the nominative case, these words are not nominatives. They are naturally accusatives ; and when, in an older stage of the Gothic languages, the accusative *was* distinguished from the nominative, they appeared in the form of the accusative.

§ 384. The door being open, *the steed was stolen*—the sun having arisen, *the labourers proceeded to work*.—In these sentences the words *door* and *sun* stand absolutely ; and as the words *being open*, and *having arisen*, agree with them, they also do the same. In English *substantives*, where there is no distinction between the nominative and the objective cases, it is of no practical importance to enquire as to the particular case in which the words like *door* and *sun* stand.

§ 385. In the English *pronouns*, where there is a distinction between the nominative and objective cases, it is of practical importance to enquire in what particular case words like *door* and *sun* stand.

1. *He made as good proverbs as any one, him only excepted.*

2. *He made as good proverbs as any one, he only excepted.*

Which of these two expressions is correct? This we can decide only by determining in what case nouns standing absolutely in the way that *door*, *sun*, and *him* (or *he*) stand, originally occurred.

In Anglo-Saxon this case was the dative; as *up-a-sprungenre sunnan*=*the sun having arisen*.

In A. S. also, *him* was a dative case, so that the case out of which expressions like the ones in question originated was the dative. Hence of the two phrases, *him excepted*, and *he excepted*, the former (contrary to the statement of the majority of grammarians) is the correct one.

PART V.

PROSODY.

§ 386.—THE word *Prosody* is derived from a Greek word (*Prosodia*) signifying *accent*. It is used by Latin and English grammarians in a wider sense, and includes not only the doctrines of accent and quantity, but also the laws of metre and versification.

§ 387. Take the sentence last written, count the syllables, and mark those that are accented.—The word *Prosody* is derived from a Greek word signifying *accent*. It is used by Latin and English grammarians in a wider sense, and includes not only the doctrines of accent and quantity, but also the laws of metre and versification.—Here the accented syllables are the 2nd, 3rd, 8th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 16th, 20th, 22nd, 26th, 27th, &c.; that is, between two accented syllables there are sometimes three, sometimes two, and sometimes no unaccented syllables intervening. In other words, there is no regularity in the recurrence of the accent.

§ 388. Proceed in the same way with the following stanza, numbering each syllable, and observing upon which the accent occurs.

Then fare thee well, mine own dear love,
 The world hath now for us
 No greater grief, no pain above
 The pain of parting thus.—MOORE.

Here the syllables accented are the 2nd, 4th, 6th, 8th 10th, 12th, 14th, 16th, 18th, 20th, 22nd, 24th, 26th, 28th ; that is, every other syllable.—Again,

At the clóse of the dáy, when the hámlet is stíll,
And the mórtals the sweéts of forgétfulness próve,
And when nóught but the tórrent is héárd on the híll,
And there's nóught but the níghtingale's sóng in the gróve.

BEATTIE.

Here the syllables accented are the 3rd, 6th, 9th, 12th, 15th, 18th, 21st, 24th, 27th, 30th, 33rd, 36th, 39th, 42nd, 45th, 48th ; that is, every third syllable.

§ 389. Now, the extract where there was no regularity in the recurrence of the accent was prose ; and the extracts where the accent recurred at regular intervals formed metre. Metre is a general term for the recurrence within certain intervals of syllables similarly affected. The syllables that have just been numbered are similarly affected, being similarly accented. Accent is not the only quality of a syllable, which by returning at regular intervals can constitute metre. It is the one, however, upon which English metre depends. English metre essentially consists in the regular recurrence of syllables similarly accented.

Abbot.—And why not live and áct with óther men ?
Manfred.—Becaúse my náture wás avérse from lífe ;
And yét not crúel, fór I wóuld not máke,
But fínd a désolátion :—líke the wínd,
The réd-hot breáth of the most lóne simoóm,
Which dwélls but ín the désert, ánd sweeps o'er
The bárren sánds which beár no shrúbs to blást,
And révels o'er their wíld and árid wáves,
And seéketh nót so thát it ís not sóught,
But béíng mét ís deádlý : súch hath beén
The páth of mý exístence.—BYRON.

§ 390. *Measures.* — For every accented syllable in the following line write the letter *a*, and for every unaccented one the letter *x*, so that *a* stand for an accent, *x* for the absence of one :

The wáy was lóng, the wínd was cóld.—SCOTT.

or expressed symbolically,

x a x a x a x a

where *x* coincides with *the*, *a* with *way*, &c., &c.

§ 391. Determine the length of the line in question. Now, it is plain that this may be done in two ways. We may either measure by the syllables, and say that the line consists of eight syllables ; or by the accents, and say that it consists of four accents. In this latter case we take the accented syllable with its corresponding unaccented one, and, grouping the two together, deal with the pair at once. Now, a groupe of syllables thus taken together is called a measure. In the line in question *the way* (*x a*) is one measure, and *was long* (*x a*) another, and so on throughout ; the line itself consisting of four measures.

The wár, that fór a spáce did fail,
Now trébly thúndered ón the gále,
And Stánley wás the crý ;
A líght on Mármion's vísage shéd,
And fired his glázing éye ;
With díng hánd abóve his heád
He shoók the frágments óf his bláde,
And shoúted víctory !—SCOTT.

§ 392. It is very evident that there must be different sorts of measures. In lines like the following the

measure is the reverse of the preceding one. The accented syllable comes first, the unaccented one follows ; the formula being *a x*.

Láy thy bów of peárl apárt,
 A'nd thy sílver shíning quíver ;
 Gíve untó the fíying hárt
 Tíme to breáthe, how shórt soéver ;
 Thoú that mák'st a dáy of níght,
 Góddess éxquisítely bríght.—BEN JONSON.

§ 393. *Trisyllabic Measures*.—The number of measures consisting of two syllables, or dissyllabic measures, is necessarily limited to two, expressed by *a x* and *x a* respectively. But beyond these there are in the English language measures of three syllables, or trisyllabic measures. The number of these is necessarily limited to three.

The first of these is exhibited in the word *merrily* (*a x x*).

Mérrily, mérrily sháll I live nów,
 U'nder the blóssom that hángs on the boúgh.

SHAKESPEARE.

§ 394. The second is exhibited by the word *disable* (*x a x*).

But váinly thou wárrést,
 For thís is alóne in
 Thy pówer to decláre,
 That ín the díim fórest
 Thou heárd'st a low móáning,
 And sáw'st a bríght lády surpássingly fáir.

COLERIDGE.

§ 395. The third is exhibited by the word *cavaliér* (*x x a*).

There's a beauty for éver unfadingly bright,
Like the long ruddy léps of a sámmér-day's night.

MOORE.

§ 396. When grouped together according to certain rules, measures form lines, and verses; and lines and verses regularly arranged constitute couplets, triplets, and stanzas, &c. &c. Before we speak of these it will be necessary to exhibit the nature of rhyme.

§ 397. *Rhyme*.—In the forthcoming quotation each pair of lines is called a Couplet. Observe in each couplet the last syllable of each line: these are said to *rhyme* to each other.

O'er the glad waters of the dark blue sea,
Our thoughts as boundless, and our souls as free.
Far as the breeze can bear the billow's foam,
Survey our empire and behold our home.
These are our realms, no limits to our sway—
Our flag the sceptre all who meet obey.

The next extract is a stanza of Gray's *Elegy*, where, instead of following one another in succession, the rhyming lines come alternately.

Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark, unfathom'd depths of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.—GRAY.

In other stanzas the rhyming lines are sometimes continuous (or in succession), and sometimes separated from each other by an interval.

And yet how lovely in thine age of woe,
Land of lost gods, and godlike men, art thou!
Thy vales of evergreen, thy hills of snow,
Proclaim thee Nature's varied favourite now:

Thy fanes, thy temples to thy surface bow,
 Commingling slowly with heroic earth,
 Broke by the share of every rustic plough :
 So perish monuments of mortal birth,
 So perish all in turn, save well-recorded worth.—BYRON.

§ 398. It is not difficult to see, in a general way, in what rhyme consists. The syllables *sea* and *free*, *foam*, *home*, &c. are syllables of similar sound ; and lines that end in syllables of similar sound are lines that rhyme.

By substituting in a line or stanza, instead of the final syllable, some word different in sound, although similarly accented, and equally capable of making sense, we may arrive at a general view of the nature and influence of rhyme as an ornament of metre. In the following stanza we may spoil the effect by substituting the word *glen* for *vale*, and *spark* for *ray*.

Turn, gentle hermit of the vale,
 And guide thy lonely way
 To where yon taper cheers the dale
 With hospitable ray.—GOLDSMITH.

§ 399. The definition of the word *rhyme* must be made closer. Syllables may be similar in their sound, and yet fail in furnishing full, true, and perfect rhymes. In each of the forthcoming couplets there is evidently a similarity of sound, and there is equally evidently an imperfection in the rhyme.

I.

The soft-flowing outline that steals from the eye,
 Who threw o'er the surface,—did you or did I ?

WHITEHEAD.

II.

'Tis with our judgments as our watches ; none
 Go just alike, yet each believes his own.—POPE.

III.

Soft o'er the shrouds aërial whispers breathe,
That seemed but zephyrs to the train beneath.—POPE.

The first of these three pairs of verses was altered into

The soft-flowing outline that steals from the view,
Who threw o'er the surface,—did I or did you?

and that solely on account of the imperfectness of the original endings, *eye* and *I*.

These are samples of what passes for a rhyme without being one. A true rhyme will be better understood after the analysis of a rhyming syllable.

§ 400. *Analysis of a pair of Rhyming Syllables.*—Let the syllables *told* and *bold* be taken to pieces, and let the separate parts of each be compared. Viewed in reference to metre, they consist of three parts or elements: 1. the vowel (*o*); 2. the part *preceding* the vowel (*t* and *b* respectively); 3. the parts *following* the vowel (*ld*). Now the vowel (*o*) and the parts following the vowel (*ld*) are alike in both words (*old*); but the part preceding the vowel is different in the different words (*told*, *bold*). This difference between the parts preceding the vowel is essential; since, if it were not for this, the two words would be identical, or rather there would be but one word altogether. This is the case with *I* and *eye*. Sound for sound (although different in spelling) the two words are identical, and, consequently, the rhyme is faulty.

Again: compared with the words *bold* and *told*, the words *teeth* and *breeze* have two of the elements necessary to constitute a rhyme. The vowels are alike

(*ee*), whilst the parts preceding the vowels are different (*br* and *t*) ; and, as far as these two matters are concerned, the rhyme is a good one, *tee* and *bree*. Notwithstanding this, there is anything rather than a rhyme; since the parts following the vowel (*th* and *ze*), instead of agreeing, differ. *Breathe* and *beneath* are in the same predicament, because the *th* is not sounded alike in the two words.

Again : the words *feel* and *mill* constitute only a false and imperfect rhyme. Sound for sound, the letters *f* and *m* (the parts preceding the vowel) are different. This is as it should be. Also, sound for sound, *l* and *ll* (the parts following the vowel) are identical ; and this is as it should be also : but *ee* and *i* (the vowels) are different, and this difference spoils the rhyme. *None* and *own* are in the same predicament ; since one *o* is sounded as *o* in *note*, and the other as the *u* in *but*.

From what has gone before we get the notion of true and perfect rhymes as opposed to false and imperfect ones. For two (or more) words to rhyme each other, it is necessary

- a.) That the vowel be the same in both :
- b.) That the parts following the vowel be the same :
- c.) That the parts preceding the vowel be different.

Beyond this it is necessary that the syllables, to form a full and perfect rhyme, should be accented syllables. *Sky* and *lie* form good rhymes, but *sky* and *merrily* bad ones, and *merrily* and *silly* worse. Lines like the second and fourth of the following stanza are slightly exceptionable on this score : indeed, many readers sacrifice the accent in the word *merrily* to the rhyme, and pronounce it *merrily*'.

The witch she héld the háir in her hánd,
 The réd flame blázed hígh ;
 And róund abóut the cáldron stoút,
 They dánced right mérrily'.—KIRKE WHITE.

§ 401. *Varieties of imperfect Rhymes.*—*None* and *own* are better rhymes than *none* and *man* ; because there are degrees in the amount to which vowels differ from one another, and the sounds of the *o* in *none* and the *o* in *own* are more alike than the sounds of the *o* in *none* and the *a* in *man*. In like manner *breathe* and *teeth* are nearer to rhymes than *breathe* and *tease* ; and *breathe* and *tease* are more alike in sound than *breathe* and *teal*. All this is because the sound of *th* in *teeth* is more allied to that of *th* in *breathe* than that of *z* in *tease*, and the *z* in *tease* more than the *l* in *teal*. This shews that in imperfect rhymes there are degrees, and that some approach the nature of true ones more than others.

§ 402. In matters of rhyme the letter *h* counts as nothing. *High* and *I*, *hair* and *air*, are imperfect rhymes, because *h* (being no articulate sound) counts as nothing, and so the parts before the vowel *i* and *a* are not different (as they ought to be), but identical.

Whose generous children narrowed not their hearts
 With commerce, given alone to arms and arts.—BYRON.

§ 403. Words where the letters coincide, but the sounds differ, are only rhymes to the eye. *Breathe* and *beneath* are in this predicament ; so also are *cease* and *ease* (*eaze*).

In the fat age of pleasure, wealth, and ease,
 Sprang the rank weed, and thriv'd with large increase.

POPE.

§ 404. If the sounds coincide, the difference of the letters is unimportant.

Bold in the practice of mistaken rules,
Prescribe, apply, and call their masters fools.—POPE.

They talk of principles, but notions prize,
And all to one loved folly sacrifice.

§ 405. *Single Rhymes*.—An accented syllable standing by itself, and coming under the conditions given above, constitutes a single rhyme.

'Tis hard to say if greater want of *skill*
Appear in writing or in judging *ill* ;
But, of the two, less dangerous is the *offence*
To tire the patience than mislead the *sense*.
Some few in that, but thousands err in *this* ;
Ten censure wrong, for one that writes *amiss*.—POPE.

§ 406. *Double Rhymes*.—An accented syllable followed by an unaccented one, and coming under the conditions given above, constitutes a double rhyme.

The meeting points the sacred hair *dissever*
From her fair head for ever and for *ever*.—POPE.

Prove and explain a thing till all men *doubt it*,
And write about it, Goddess, and *about it*.—POPE.

§ 407. An accented syllable followed by two unaccented ones, and coming under the conditions given above, constitutes a treble rhyme.

Beware that its fatal *ascendency*
Do not tempt thee to mope and repine ;
With a humble and hopeful *dépendency*
Still await the good pleasure divine.

Success in a higher *beatitude*,
 Is the end of what's under the Pole ;
 A philosopher takes it with *gratitude*,
 And believes it the best on the whole.—BYRON.

§ 408. Accent is essential to English metre. Rhyme, on the other hand, is only an ornament. Of all the ornaments of English versification it is undoubtedly the most important. Still it is not essential. Metres where there is no rhyme are called Blank Metres.

Of man's first disobedience and the fruit
 Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste
 Brought death into the world and all our woe,
 With loss of Eden, till one greater man
 Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
 Sing, Heavenly Muse !—MILTON.

The quality of mercy is not strained.
 It droppeth as the gentle dew from heaven
 Upon the place beneath ; it is twice blessed,
 It blesseth him that gives, and him that takes ;
 'Tis mightiest of the mighty, it becomes
 The throned monarch better than his crown.
 His sceptre shews the force of temporal power,
 The attribute of awe and majesty,
 Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings :
 But mercy is above this sceptred sway ;
 It is enthroned in the hearts of kings :
 It is an attribute to God himself ;
 And earthly power doth then shew likest God's,
 When mercy seasons justice.—SHAKESPEARE.

§ 409. *Classification of the English Measures.*—If we lay out of the calculations the measures consisting of a single syllable on one hand, and those consisting of four syllables on the other, the number of the English measures is five. Two of these are dissyllabic, and three

trissyllabic. The dissyllabic ones come first in order. Of these the one where the accented syllable precedes the unaccented one naturally stands first. The same takes place with the trissyllabic measures. It is very fortunate that our measures are thus capable of being classed naturally: since, by so classing them, we can number them according to their place in the arrangement; and, in speaking of them, say the first measure, the second measure, the third measure, and so on. This is necessary, since there is no convenient and unexceptionable name for each separate measure. The order then of the English measures is as follows:

- | | |
|--|-----------------|
| 1. <i>a x</i> .— <i>týrant, silly,</i> | } Dissyllabic. |
| 2. <i>x a</i> .— <i>presúme, detér,</i> | |
| 3. <i>a x x</i> .— <i>mérrily, fórtify,</i> | } Trissyllabic. |
| 4. <i>x a x</i> .— <i>disáble, préferring,</i> | |
| 6. <i>x x a</i> .— <i>refugée, cavalíér,</i> | |

§ 410. *The last measure in a line or verse is indifferent as to its length.*—By referring to the section upon single rhymes, we shall find that the number of syllables is just double the number of accents; that is, to each accented there is one unaccented syllable, and no more. Hence, with five accents, there are to each line ten syllables. This is not the case with the lines under § 406. There the rhymes are double, and the last accented syllable has two unaccented ones to accompany it. Hence, with five accents, there are to each line eleven syllables. Now it is in the last measure of the verses under § 406 that this supernumerary unaccented syllable appears; and it is a general rule, that, in the last measure of any verse, supernumerary unaccented

syllables can be admitted without destroying the original character of the measure. Hence it is that, up to a certain point, we may say that the length of the concluding measure of a line or verse is a matter of indifference. Now in the verses under §§ 406 and 407 the original character of the measure is $x a$ throughout, until we get to the words *disséver* and *for éver*, and afterwards to *men dóubt it*, and *abóút it*. At the first view it seems proper to say that in these last-mentioned cases $x a$ is converted into $x a x$. A different view, however, is the more correct one. *Disséver*, and *for éver*, are rather $x a$ with a syllable over. This extra syllable may be expressed by the sign *plus* (+), so that the words in point may be expressed by $x a +$, rather than by $x a x$. It is very clear that a foot whereof the last syllable is accented, (that is, feet like $x a$, *présúme*, or $x x a$, *cavalier*,) can only vary from their original character on the side of excess; that is, they can only be altered by the addition of fresh syllables. To subtract a syllable from such feet is impossible; since it is only the last syllable that is capable of being subtracted. If that last syllable, however, be the accented syllable of the measure, the whole measure is annihilated. Nothing remains but the unaccented syllable; and this, as no measure can subsist without an accent, must be counted as a super-numerary part of the preceding measure.

§ 411. With the measures $a x$, $a x x$, $x a x$, the case is different. Here there is room for a syllable or syllables to be subtracted.

Queén and húntréss, cháste and fáir,
 Nów the sún is láid to sléép,
 Séátéd ín thy sílver chair,
 Státe ín wóntéd spléndour kéép :

Hesperus invokes thy light,
Góddess, exquisitely bright.—BEN JONSON.

In all these lines the last measure is deficient in a syllable, yet the deficiency is allowable, because each measure is the last one of the line. The formula for expressing *fair, sleép, chaír*, &c. is not *a*, but rather *a x* followed by the *minus* sign, (—) or *a x—*.

A little consideration will shew, that, amongst the English measures, *x a* and *x x a* naturally form single, *a x* and *x a x* double, and *a x x* treble rhymes.

§ 412. *Metrical Notation*.—The lines under § 405 consist each of five measures, each measure being *x a*. This we may express thus :

x a x a x a x a x a.

The presence of a supernumerary syllable may be denoted by the sign +. The line in § 406 runs

x a x a x a x a x a +.

On the other hand, the sign — indicates the absence of a syllable: so that the line

Queén and húntréss cháste and fáir,
runs

a x a x a x a x —.

These forms may be rendered more compendious by the introduction of the arithmetical sign \times signifying multiplication, by means of which we may write, instead of

a x a x a x a x —,

the shorter form, or

a x \times 4 —.

If it be asked to what purpose this symbolical notation is introduced, the answer is, that neither our mea-

sure nor our verses have sufficiently unexceptionable denominations. With this method of notation we can proceed to the examination of lines (or verses) and stanzas.

§ 413. *Verses formed by the First Measure, or a x.*
—1. A verse so short as to consist of a single accented syllable can be conceived to exist. Its formula would be $a\ x$ —. I know of no actual specimens. The next in point of brevity would be $a\ x$. This also is either non-existent, or too rare to be of practical importance.

2. *Verses of Two Measures.* Formula $a\ x\ a\ x$, or $a\ x \times 2$.

Rich the treasure,
Sweet the pleasure.—DRYDEN.

Verses of Formula $a\ x\ a\ x$ —, or $a\ x \times 2$ —.

Túmult ceáse,
Sínk to péáce.

3. *Three Measures.* Formula $a\ x \times 3$.

Smoóthes awáy a wrínkle—
E'very dróp we sprínkle.

Formula $a\ x \times 3$ —.

Fíll the búmper fáir—
On the brów of cáre.

The two varieties of this formula, rhyming alternately, constitute the following stanza :

Fíll the búmper fáir ;
E'very dróp we sprínkle,
O'n the brów of cáre,
Smoóthes awáy a wrínkle.

Ságes cán, they sáy,
 Seíze the líghtning's pínion,
 A'nd bring dówn its ráy
 Fróm the stárréd dominíon.—MOORE.

4. Four measures. Formula $ax \times 4$.

Thén her cóúntenánce all óver—
 Bút he clásped her líke a lóver.

Formula $ax \times 4$ —.

Pále agáin as deáth did próve —
 A'nd he cheér'd her soúl with lóve.

These two varieties alternating, and with rhyme, constitute one of the commonest metres of which ax is the basis.

Thén her cóúntenánce all óver
 Pále agáin as deáth did próve :
 Bút he clásped her líke a lóver,
 A'nd he cheér'd her soúl with lóve.
 Só she stróve agáinst her weákness,
 Thóugh at tímes her spírits sánk ;
 Sháped her heárt with wóman's meékness
 Tó all dúties óf her ránk.
 A'nd a géntle cónsort máde he,
 A'nd her géntle mínd was súch,
 Thát she gréw a nóble lády,
 A'nd the peóple lóved her múch.
 Bút a tróuble weíghed upón her,
 A'nd perpléxed her níght and mórn
 Wíth the búrden óf an hónour
 U'nto wích she wás not bórn.—TENNYSON.

5. Five measures. Formula $ax \times 5$.

Nárrówing ín to whére they sát assémbled,
 Lów volúptuous músic wínding trémbled.

Formula $a \times 5$ —.

Thén methought I heard a hóllow soúnd,
Gáth'ring úp from áll the lówer gróund.

The two varieties mixed :

Then methought I heard a hollow sound,
Gath'ring up from all the lower ground.
Narrowing in to where they sat assembled,
Low voluptuous music winding trembled,
Wov'n in circles : they that heard it sighed,
Panted, hand in hand, with faces pale,
Swung themselves, and in low tones replied ;
Till the fountain spouted, showering wide
Sleet of diamond-drift and pearly hail :
Then the music touched the gates and died.—TENNYSON.

6. Six measures. Formula $a \times 6$, or $a \times 6$ —.

O'n a móuntain, strétched beneath a hoáry willow,
Láy a shépherd swáin, and viéwed the rólling bíllow.

7. Seven measures. Formula $a \times 7$, or $a \times 7$ —.

Wé have hád enóugh of áction ánd of mótion ; wé—
Lét us sweár an óáth, and kéép it, wíth an équal mínd—

8. Eight measures. Formula $a \times 8$, or $a \times 8$ —.

Cómrades, leáve me hére a líttle, whíle as yét 'tis éarly mórn :
Leáve me hére ; and, whén you wánt me, soúnd upón the búgle hórñ.

Lines of this formula occur sometimes unmixed, and constituting whole poems ; as

Here about the beach I wandered, nourishing a youth sublime
With the fairy tales of science, and the long results of Time ;
When the centuries behind me like a fruitful land reposed ;
When I clung to all the Present for the promise that it closed ;

When I dipped into the Future, far as human eye could see,
 Saw the vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be —
 In the Spring a fuller crimson comes upon the robin's breast ;
 In the Spring the wanton lapwing gets himself another nest ;
 In the Spring a livelier iris changes on the burnished dove ;
 In the Spring a young man's fancy lightly turns to thoughts of love.
 Then her cheek was pale and thinner than should be for one so young,
 And her eyes on all my motions with a mute observance hung.
 And I said, " My cousin Amy, speak, and speak the truth to me ;
 Trust me, cousin, all the current of my being sets to thee."

TENNYSON (*Lockesley Hall*).

Sometimes mixed with other measures (as with lines of formula $ax \times 7$) ;

We have had enough of action and of motion ; we
 Rolled to starboard, rolled to larboard, when the surge was seething
 free,
 Where the wallowing monster spouted his foam-fountains in the sea.
 Let us swear an oath, and keep it with an equal mind,
 In the hollow lotos-land to live and lie reclined
 On the hills, like gods together, careless of mankind :
 For they lie beside their nectar, and their bolts are hurl'd
 Far below them in the valleys, and the clouds are lightly curl'd
 Round their golden houses, girdled with the gleaming world ;
 Where they smile in secret, looking over wasted lands,
 Blight and famine, plague and earthquake, roaring deeps and fiery
 sands,
 Clanging fights, and flaming towns, and sinking ships, and praying
 hands.—
 Surely, surely slumber is more sweet than toil ; the shore,
 Than labour in the deep mid-ocean, wind, and wave, and oar.
 Oh ! rest ye, brother mariners, we will not wander more.

TENNYSON (*The Lotos-Eaters*).

Lines based upon ax are rarely without rhyme ; in other words, they rarely constitute blank verse. The accent lies on the odd syllables.

§ 414. *Verses formed by the Second Measure, or $x a$.*

1. Lines so short as to be reducible to $x a$ are of too rare occurrence to demand special notice.

Formula $x a +$.

Thou Béing,
All-seeing,
O hear my fervent prayer ;
Still táke her,
And máke her
Thy most peculiar care. — BURNS.

Generally, lines of this formula are arranged as single verses. Such is the case with those just quoted, that are printed

Thou Being, all-seeing,
O hear my fervent prayer ;
Still take her, and make her
Thy most peculiar care.

2. Two measures. Formula $x a \times 2$.

Unheárd, unknow'n,
He mákes his moán—
What sounds were heard !
What scenes appeared—
The strains decay,
And melt away.—POPE.

Formula $x a \times 2 +$.

Upón a moúntain,
Besíde a foúntain.

3. Three measures. Formula $x a \times 3$.

With hóllow blásts of wínd —
All ón a róck reclíned.

Formula $x a \times 3 +$.

'Twas w'hén the seas were róaring —
A dámsel láy déploring.

The alternation of the two varieties of $xa \times 3$ constitutes what may be called Gay's stanza.

'Twas when the seas were roaring
 With hollow blasts of wind,
 A damsel lay deploring,
 All on a rock reclined.
 Wide o'er the foaming billows
 She cast a wistful look ;
 Her head was crowned with willows
 That trembled o'er the brook.—GAY.

Cold sweat is plashing o'er them,
 Their breasts are beating slow :
 The sands and shelves before them
 Flash fire at every blow.
 Their fellows stand in fear of
 The upshot of the fray ;
 The child unborn shall hear of
 The wrestling of that day.

4. Four measures. Formula $xa \times 4$.

On—on he hastened, and he drew
 My gaze of wonder as he flew :
 Though like a demon of the night
 He passed, and vanished from my sight,
 His aspect and his air imprest
 A troubled memory on my breast,
 And long upon my startled ear
 Rung his dark courser's hoofs of fear.—BYRON.

5. Five measures. Formula $xa \times 5$.

Fond fool ! six feet of earth is all thy store
 And he that seeks for all shall have no more.—HALL.

Formula $xa \times 5 +$.

The meeting points the sacred hair dis sever,
 From her fair head for ever and for ever.—POPE.

§ 415. As this is the standard metre in the English language, it may serve as a basis for the study of the rest. In point of time it is one of our earliest forms of verse. It was written by Chaucer in the fourteenth century, is written by the poets of the present generation, and has been used by most writers of the intermediate period. Its chief cultivators have been Chaucer, Dryden, Pope, Cowper, and Byron, in rhyme; and Milton and the dramatists in blank verse. In character it has every variety. For serious poetry (except in the drama) it is considered that the admission of an extra syllable at the end of the line (that is, formula $xa \times 5 +$) is exceptionable. Whenever it occurs in Milton, it is found fault with by Johnson; and the same author asserts that, with one exception, it always appears disadvantageously in Pope. In the drama, where the language of common life is more especially imitated, the formula $xa \times 5 +$ is not only admissible but necessary.

The general term for metres of the form in question is Heroic. The first division into which the heroic metres fall is into (a) blank heroics; (b) rhyming heroics.

§ 416. *Blank Heroics*. — Blank heroics, or blank verse, as it is generally called, falls into two varieties determined by the nature of the subject-matter: (a) dramatic blank verse; (b) narrative blank verse.

§ 417. *Dramatic Blank Verse*. — With the exception of the earliest dramas in the language, and some rhyming tragedies written in imitation of the French about the time of Charles II., the writings for the English stage consist chiefly of either prose or blank verse. It is in blank verse that most tragedies and many comedies are

either wholly or partially written. Dramatic blank verse not only admits, but calls for, the formula $xa \times 5 +$. Often there are two supernumerary syllables. In rhyming metres these would constitute double rhymes.

OTHELLO'S SPEECH BEFORE THE SENATORS.

Most potent, grave, and reverend seigniors,
 My very noble and approved good *masters*,
 That I have ta'en away this old man's *daughter*,
 It is most true : true, I have married her :
 The very head and front of my *offending*
 Hath this extent, no more. Rude I 'm in speech,
 And little blessed with the set phrase of peace,
 For since these arms of mine had seven years' pith
 Till now, some nine moons wasted, they have used
 Their dearest action in the tented field,
 And little of this great world can I speak,
 More than pertains to feats of broil and *battle* ;
 And therefore little shall I grace my cause
 In speaking of myself : yet by your *patience*
 I will a round unvarnished tale deliver
 Of my whole course of love ; what drugs, what charms,
 What conjuration, and what mighty *magic*,
 (For such proceedings am I charged withal,)
 I won his daughter.—SHAKESPEAR.

Narrative Blank Verse.—The metre of *Paradise Lost*, *Paradise Regained*, *Young's Night Thoughts*, *Cowper's Task*, *Cowper's Homer*, &c.

Nine times the space that measures day and night
 To mortal men, he, with his horrid crew,
 Lay vanquished, rolling in the fiery gulf
 Confounded, though immortal : but his doom
 Preserved him to more wrath, for now the thought
 Both of lost happiness and lasting pain
 Torments him.

Here the admission of a supernumerary final syllable is rare. Lines of *eleven* syllables like the following are uncommon.

Of sovran power with awful ceremony.

Paradise Lost, b. i.

Rhyming Heroics.—For further notice of this class of metres, see § 421. 6.

6. Six measures. Formulas $x a \times 6$, and $x a \times 6 +$.

He lifted up his hánd that báck again did stárt.—SPENSER.

Ye sácred bárd's that tó | your hárp's' melódious stríngs
Sung th' áncient héroes' déeds, | the mónuménts of kíngs ;
If, á's those drúids táught | who képt the Brítish ríte,
And dwélt in dárksome gróves, | there cóunselling with sprítes,
When thése our sóúls by deáth | our bódies dó forsáke,
They ínstantly ágáin | to óther bódies táke,
I cóuld have wíshed your sóúls | redóubled ín my bréást,
To gíve my vérsé appláuse | to tíme's etérnal rést.—DRAYTON.

Observe in the metre the pause after the third accent.

7. Seven measures. Formulas $x a \times 7$, and $x a \times 7 +$.

But one request I make to him | that sits the skies above,
That I were freely out of debt | as I were out of love ;
Oh ! then to dance and sing and play | I should be very willing,
I 'd never owe a maid a kiss, | and ne'er a knave a shilling.

SUCKLING.

8. Eight measures. Formulas $x a \times 8$ and $x a \times 8 +$.

Where virtue wants, and vice abounds, | and wealth is but a baited
hook
Wherewith men swallow down the bane | before on danger dark they
look.

§ 418. *Verses formed upon the Third Measure, or a x x.*
 —Verses formed upon measure *a x x* are neither frequent nor regular. Generally there is the deficiency of some unaccented syllable, in which the formula is reduced to *a x x* —, which may be confounded with the first measure, or *a x*. The point to determine is whether the general character of the verse is trisyllabic or dissyllabic.

1. Two measures. Formulas *a x x x* × 2 and *a x x* × 2 —. Of these the latter is most common. Not only one of the unaccented syllables, but even both of them are frequently wanting at the end of lines.

Whén we two párted
 In sílence and teára,
 Hálf broken-héarted
 To séver for yeárs ;
 Pále grew thy cheék and cóld,
 Cólder thy kíss.
 Trúly that hóur foretold
 Sórrów to thís.—BYRON.

Píbroch o' Dónuill Dhu !
 Píbroch o Dónuill !
 Wáke thy shrill voice anew,
 Súmmon Clan Connuill.
 Cóme away, cóme away,
 Hárk to the súmmons !
 Cóme in your wár array,
 Géntles and cómmóns.—
 Cóme ev'ry hill-plaid, and
 Trúe heart that weárs one ;
 Cóme ev'ry steél-blade, and
 Stróng hand that beárs one.—
 Leáve the deer, leáve the steer,
 Leáve nets and bárges :
 Cóme with your fighting-gear,
 Broádswords and tárges.

Côme as the winds come, when
 Fórests are rénded ;
 Côme as the wáves come, when
 Návies are stránded :
 Fàster come, fàster come,
 Fàster and fàster,
 Chiéf, vassal, páge, and groom,
 Ténant and máster.
 Fást they come, fást they come,
 Sée how they gáther !
 Wide waves the eaglé plume,
 Blénded with heáther.
 Cást your plaids, dráw your blades,
 Fóward each mán set !
 Píbroch of Dónuil Dhu,
 Knéll for the ónset.—SCOTT.

Whére shall the lóver rest,
 Whóm the fates séver,
 Fróm his true maiden's breast,
 Párted for éver ?
 Whére through gróves déep and high,
 Sóunds the far bíllow ;
 Whére early víolets díe
 U'nder the willow.—SCOTT.

O'ft have I seén the sun,
 Tó her do hónour,
 Fíx himself át his noon
 Tó look upón her,
 A'nd hath gílt év'ry grove
 E'v'ry híll néar her,
 Wíth his flames fróm above,
 Stríving to cheér her.
 A'nd when she fróm his síght
 Háth herself túrned,
 Hé, as it hád been níght,
 I'n clouds hath móurned.—DRAYTON.

2. Three measures. Formulas $axx \times 3$ and $axx \times 3$ —.

Peáce to thee, ísle of the ócean,
Peáce to thy breézes and bíllows !—BYRON.

3. Four measures. Formulas $axx \times 4$, and $axx \times 4$ —.

Mérrily, mérrily sháll I live nów,
U'nder the blóssom that hángs on the boágh.—SHAKESPEAR.

1.

Wárriors or chiéfs, should the sháft or the swórd
Piérce me in léading the hóst of the Lórd,
Heéd not the córpse, though a kíng 's in your páth,
Búry your steél in the bósons of Gáth.

2.

Thóu, who art beáring my búckler and bów,
Should the soldiers of Saul look away from the foe,
Láy me that móment in bloód at thy feét,
Mine be the doom that they dáre not to meét.

3.

Fárewell to óthers, but néver we párt,
Heír to my róyalty, són of my héart ;
Bríght be the díadem, boúndless the swáy,
Or kíngly the deáth that awáits us to-dáy.—BYRON.

§ 419. *Verses formed upon the Fourth Measure, or xax .*—Verses of a single measure are equivocal, since xax cannot be distinguished from $xa+$, and xax — is identical in form with xa . The general character of the verses in the neighbourhood determines whether measures of this sort shall be looked upon as dissyllabic or trisyllabic.

1. Two measures. Formulas $x a x \times 2$ and $x a x \times 2$ —.

Beside her are laid
Her mattock and spade—
Alone she is there,
Her shoulders are bare—
E'er alone
She maketh her moan.—TENNYSON.

But vainly thou warrest ;
For this is alone in
Thy power to declare,
That, in the dim forest,
Thou heard'st a low moaning.—COLERIDGE.

The black bands came over
The Alps and their snow ;
With Bourbon, the rover,
They passed the broad Pó.
We [have] beaten all foemen,
We [have] captured a king,
We [have] turned back on no men,
And so let us sing
The Bourbon for ever !
Though penniless all,
We 'll [have] one more endeavour
At yonder old wall.
With [the] Bourbon we 'll gather
At day-dawn before
The gates, and together
Or break or climb o'er
The wall : on the ladder
As mounts each firm foot,
Our shout shall be gladder,
[And] death only be mite.—
The Bourbon ! the Bourbon !
Sans country or home
We 'll follow the Bourbon
To plunder old Rome.—BYRON.

2. Three measures. Formulas $xa x \times 3$ and $xa x \times 3$ —.

I've found out a gift for my fair ;
 I 've found where the wood-pigeons breed :
 But let me that plunder forbear ;
 She 'll say 'twas a barbarous deed.
 He né'er could be true, she averred,
 Who [would] rob a poor bird of its young ;
 [And] I loved her the more when I heard
 , Such tenderness fall from her tongue.—SHENSTONE.

A conquest how hard and how glorious ;
 Though fate had fast bound her,
 With Styx nine times round her,
 Yet music and love were victorious.—POPE.

3. Four measures. Formulas $axx \times 4$ and $axx \times 4$ —.

The world will not change, and her heart will not break.

TENNYSON.

Remember the glories of Brian the brave.—MOORE.

O hush thee, my babe, thy sire was a knight,
 Thy mother a lady both lovely and bright :
 The woods and the glens and the towers which we see,
 They all are belonging, dear babe, to thee.—SCOTT.

I ask not the pleasures that riches supply,
 My sabre must win what the weaker must buy :
 [It] shall win the fair bride with her long flowing hair,
 And many a maid from her mother shall tear.

I love the fair face of the maid in her youth,
 [Her] caresses shall lull me, her music shall soothe.
 [Let] her bring to my chamber the many-toned lyre,
 And sing me a song on the fall of her sire.—BYRON.

Oh ! young Lochinvar is come out of the west :
 Through all the wide border his steeds are the best ;

And, sáve his good broádsword, he weápons had nóne,
 He róde all unármed, and he róde all alóne.
 So faithful in lóve, and so gállant in wár,
 [Did] ye e'ér hear of brídegroom like yóung Lochinvár?

SCOTT.

[Thanks,] my Lórd, for your vén'son ; for finer nor fátter
 Ne'er rúnged in the fórest nor smóked on the plátter :
 The flésh was a pícture for páinters to stúdy,
 The fát was so whíte and the leán was so rúddy.
 [Though] my stómach was shárp, I could scárce help regrétting
 To spoíl such a délicate pícture by eáting.—GOLDSMITH.

§ 420. *Verses formed upon the Fifth Measure, or*
 x x a.

1. Formula *x x a*.

As ye sweep
 Through the deep.—CAMPBELL.

For practical purposes a pair of lines of this formula
 is dealt with as if it constituted a single verse.

As ye sweep, through the deep.

2. Formula *x x a x 2*.

In my rage shall be seen
 The revéngé of a quéen.—ADDISON.

See the snákes that they réar,
 How they híss in the air !

3. Formula *x x a x 3*.

And the spárkles that flásh from their éyes.

Lines of these two formulas are intermixed ; as,

See the snákes how they réar,
 How they híss in the air,
 And the spárkles that flásh from their éyes !

DRYDEN.

4. Formula $xxa \times 4$.

And the k  ng seized a fl  mbeau with ze  l to destr  y.

DRYDEN.

There is generally an intermixture of measures, xxa and xxa , in lines of this formula ; since the omission of a single syllable will convert

	xxa	xxa	xxa	xxa
into	xxa	xxa	xxa	xxa ,

as may be seen by separating the measures differently.

1.

The Ass  rian came d  wn like a w  lf on the f  ld,
And his c  horts were gle  ming in p  rple and g  ld :
And the she  n of the spe  rs was like st  rs on the s  a,
When the bl  ue wave rolls n  ghtly on deep Galilee.

2.

Like the le  ves of the f  rest when S  mmer is gre  n,
That h  st with their b  nners at s  nset were se  n :
Like the le  ves of the f  rest when A  tumn is bl  wn,
That h  st on the m  rrow lay withered and str  wn.

3.

For the A  ngel of De  th spread his wings on the bl  st,
And breathed in the f  ce of the f  e as he p  ss'd ;
And the eyes of the sleepers wax'd de  dly and ch  ll,
And their he  rts but once he  ved, and for   ver grew st  ll.

4.

And th  re lay the ste  d with his n  stril all w  de ;
But thr  ugh it there r  lled not the bre  th of his pr  de :
And the f  am of his g  sping lay wh  te on the t  rf,
And c  ld as the spr  y of the r  ck-beating s  rf.

5.

And th  re lay the r  der dist  rted and p  le,
With the d  w on his br  w, and the r  st on his ma  l ;
And the t  nts were all silent, the b  nners al  ne,
The l  nces unlifted, the tr  mpet unbl  wn.

6.

And the widows of A'shur are loud in their wail,
 And the idols are broke in the temple of Bál,
 And the might of the Géntile unsmóte by the swórd
 Hath mélted like snów in the glánce of the Lórd.—BYRON.

5. Formula $xxa \times 5$. Rare, if occurring at all.

6. Formula $xxa \times 6$. Rare, if occurring at all.

7. Formula $xxa \times 7$. Lines of this sort, when they occur, are to be looked upon as consisting of two lines reduced to a single verse by the omission of the rhyme.

Now he róde on the wáves of the wide-rolling sée | and
 he fóraged aroúnd like a háwk.

§ 421. Lines or verses grouped together constitute stanzas, couplets, triplets. It is only a few of the English metres that are known by fixed names. These are as follows :

1. *Gay's Stanza*.—Lines of three measures, xa , with alternate rhymes. The odd rhymes double.

'Twas when the seas were roaring
 With hollow blasts of wind,
 A damsel lay deploring,
 All on a rock reclined.

2. *Common Octosyllabics*. (See p. 197.)—Four measures, xa , with rhyme, and (unless the rhymes be double) eight syllables (*octo syllabæ*). Butler's *Hudibras*, Scott's poems, *The Giaour* and other poems of Lord Byron.

3. *Elegiac Octosyllabics*.—Same as the last, except that the rhymes are regularly alternate, and the verses arranged in stanzas.

And on her lover's arm she leant,
 And round her waist she felt it fold,
 And far across the hills they went,
 In that new world which now is old :
 Across the hills and far away,
 Beyond their utmost purple rim,
 And deep into the dying day
 The happy princess followed him.—TENNYSON.

4. *Octosyllabic Triplets*.—Three rhymes regularly in succession. Generally arranged as stanzas.

I blest them, and they wandered on :
 I spoke, but answer came there none :
 The dull and bitter voice was gone.—TENNYSON.

5. *Blank Verse*.—Five measures, *x a*, without rhyme. *Paradise Lost*, Young's *Night Thoughts*, Cowper's *Task*.

6. *Heroic Couplets*.—Five measures, *x a*, with pairs of rhymes. Chaucer, Denham, Dryden, Waller, Pope, Goldsmith, Cowper, Byron, Moore, Shelley, &c. &c. This is the common metre for narrative, didactic, and descriptive poetry.

7. *Heroic Triplets*.—Five measures, *x a*. Three rhymes in succession. Arranged in stanzas. This metre is sometimes interspersed among heroic couplets.

8. *Elegiacs*.—Five measures, *x a*, with regularly alternate lines, and arranged in stanzas.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
 The lowing herds wind slowly o'er the lea,
 The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
 And leaves the world to darkness and to me.—GRAY.

9. *Rhyme Royal*.—Seven lines of heroics, with the

two last rhymes in succession, and the five first recurring at intervals.

This Troilus, in gift of curtesie,
 With hawk on hond, and with a huge rout
 Of knightes, rode, and did her company,
 Passing all through the valey far about ;
 And further would have ridden out of doubt.
 Full faine and woe was him to gone so sone ;
 But turn he must, and it was eke to doen.—CHAUCER.

This metre was common with the writers of the earlier part of Queen Elizabeth's reign. It admits of varieties according to the distribution of the five first rhymes.

10. *Ottava Rima*.—A metre with an Italian name, and borrowed from Italy, where it is used generally for narrative poetry. The *Morgante Maggiore* of Pulci, the *Orlando Innamorato* of Bojardo, the *Orlando Furioso* of Ariosto, the *Gierusalemme Liberata* of Tasso, are all written in this metre. Besides this, the two chief epics of Spain and Portugal respectively (the *Araucana* and the *Lusiados*) are thus composed. Hence it is a form of poetry which is Continental rather than English, and naturalized rather than indigenous. The stanza consists of eight lines of heroics, the six first rhyming alternately, the two last in succession.

Arrived there, a prodigious noise he hears,
 Which suddenly along the forest spread ;
 Whereat from out his quiver he prepares
 An arrow for his bow, and lifts his head ;
 And, lo ! a monstrous herd of swine appears,
 And onward rushes with tempestuous tread,
 And to the fountain's brink precisely pours,
 So that the giant 's joined by all the boars.

Morgante Maggiore (L.D. BYRON'S Translation).

11. *Terza Rima*. — Like the last, borrowed both in name and nature from the Italian, and scarcely yet naturalized in England.

The Spirit of the fervent days of old,

When words were things that came to pass, and Thought
Flashed o'er the future, bidding men behold

Their children's children's doom already brought
Forth from the abyss of Time which is to be,

The Chaos of events where lie half-wrought
Shapes that must undergo mortality :

What the great seers of Israel wore within,
That Spirit was on them and is on me ;

And if, Cassandra-like, amidst the din
Of conflicts, none will hear, or hearing heed

This voice from out the Wilderness, the sin
Be theirs, and my own feelings be my meed,

The only guerdon I have ever known.

12. *Alexandrines*. — Six measures, *x a*, generally (perhaps always) with rhyme. The name is said to be taken from the fact that early romances upon the deeds of Alexander of Macedon, of great popularity, were written in this metre. One of the longest poems in the English language is in Alexandrines, *viz.* Drayton's *Poly-olbion*, quoted in p. 200.

13. *Spenserian Stanza*. — A stanza consisting of nine lines, the eight first heroics, the last an Alexandrine.

It hath been through all ages ever seen,

That with the prize of arms and chivalrie

The prize of beauty still hath joined been,

And that for reason's special privitie ;

For either doth on other much rely.

For he meseems most fit the fair to serve

That can her best defend from villanie ;

And she most fit his service doth deserve,

That fairest is, and from her faith will never swerve.

SPENSER.

Childe Harold and other important poems are composed in the Spenserian stanza.

14. *Service Metre*.—Couplets of seven measures, *x a*. This is the common metre of the Psalm versions. It is also called Common Measure, or Long Measure.

But one request I make to him.

See p. 200. In this metre there is always a pause after the fourth measure, and many grammarians consider that with that pause the line ends. According to this view, the Service Metre does not consist of two long lines with seven measures each; but of four short ones, with four and three measures each alternately. The Psalm versions are printed so as to exhibit this pause or break.

The Lord descended from above, | and bowed the heavens most high,
And underneath his feet He cast | the darkness of the sky.
On Cherubs and on Seraphim | full royally He rode,
And on the wings of mighty winds | came flying all abroad.

STERNHOLD AND HOPKINS.

In this matter the following distinction is convenient. When the last syllable of the fourth measure (*i. e.* the eighth syllable in the line) in the one verse *rhymes* with the corresponding syllable in the other, the long verse should be looked upon as broken up into two short ones; in other words, the couplets should be dealt with as a stanza. Where there is no rhyme except at the seventh measure, the verse should remain undivided. Thus:

Turn, gentle hermit of the glen, | and guide thy lonely way
To where yon taper cheers the vale | with hospitable ray—

constitute a single couplet of two lines, the number of rhymes being two. But,

Turn, gentle hermit of the dale,
 And guide thy lonely way
 To where yon taper cheers the vale
 With hospitable ray.—GOLDSMITH.

constitute a stanza of four lines, the number of rhymes being four. The same reasoning applies to the Alexandrine, which is occasionally, and to the metre of the formula $x a \times 8$, which is generally broken up.

15. *Ballad Stanza*.—Service metre broken up in the way just indicated. Goldsmith's Edwin and Angelina, &c., &c.

16. *Poulterer's Measure*.—Alexandrines and Service Metre alternately. Found in the poetry of Henry the Eighth's time.

No others amongst the numerous English metres have hitherto received names.

§ 422. *Licences*.—It rarely happens that, even in the most regular metres, the same measure is exclusively adhered to throughout. Instead of

There comes the squall more black than night,
 Before the Adrian gale—

the author writes

There comes the squall *blacker* than night,
 Before the Adrian gale.—MACAULAY.

substituting $a x$ for $x a$, and giving variety to his verse.

Again, in the following line from Marlow we find $a x$ in the place of $x a$.

Tyrants swim safest in a purple flood.

By referring to pp. 204, 205, the reader will find that in several quotations certain syllables are inclosed in brackets []. All these were supernumerary syllables,

admitted by a certain allowable latitude, and constituting Metrical Licences. Sometimes the substitution of one measure for another is a matter of necessity; sometimes it is done intentionally, for the sake of avoiding monotony. In this latter case it is an ornamental licence. The numerous forms of metrical licence are best learned by practice upon a variety of metres, the works of different authors.

ERRATUM.

Page 22, line 22, for *Preterite* read *Preterites*.

FINIS.

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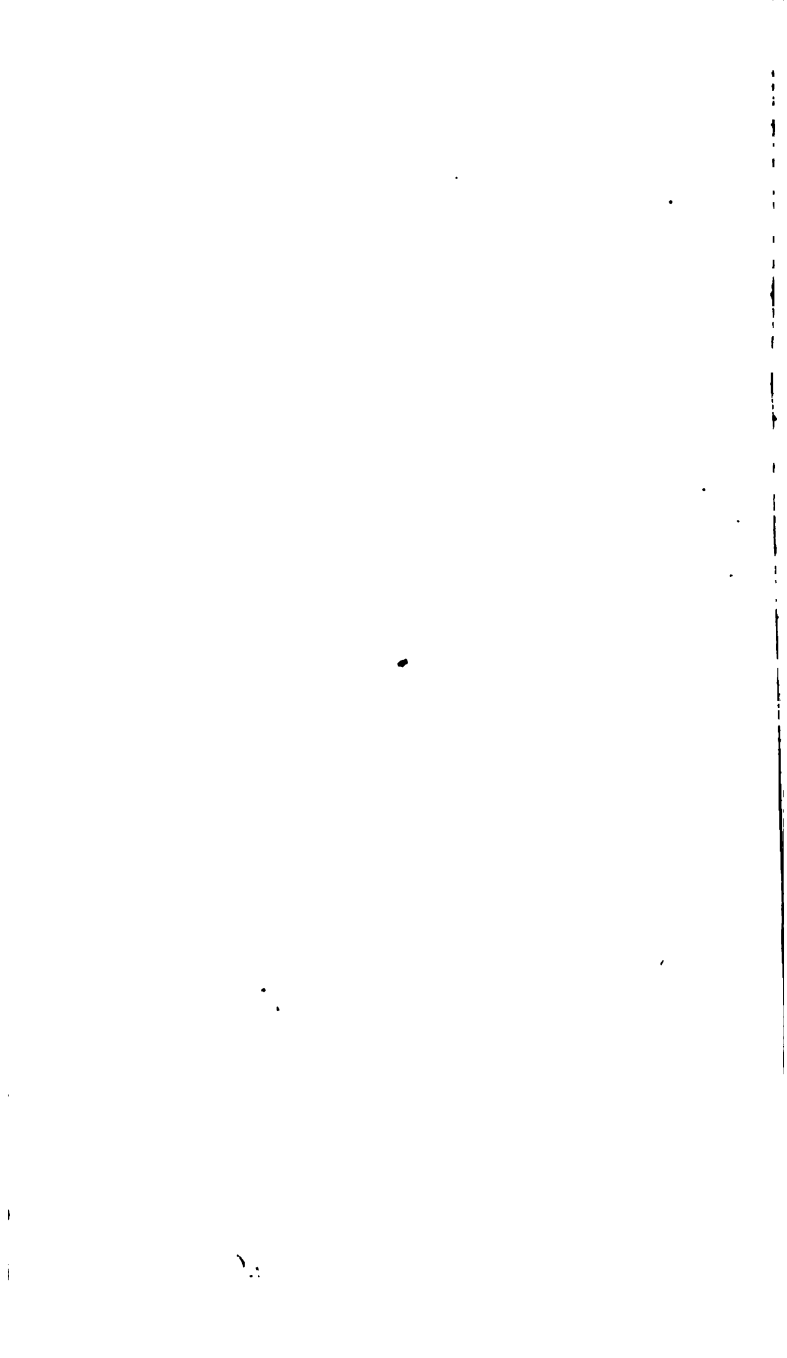
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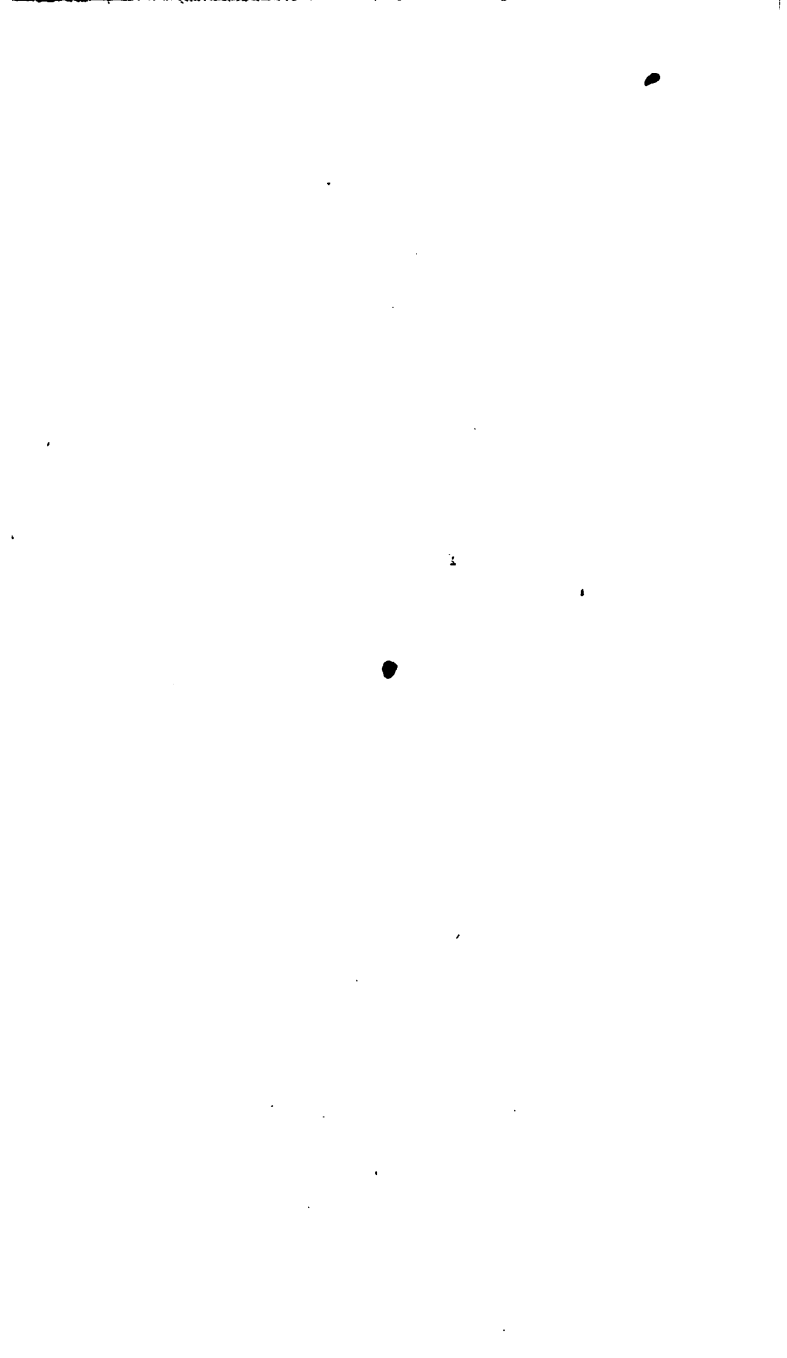
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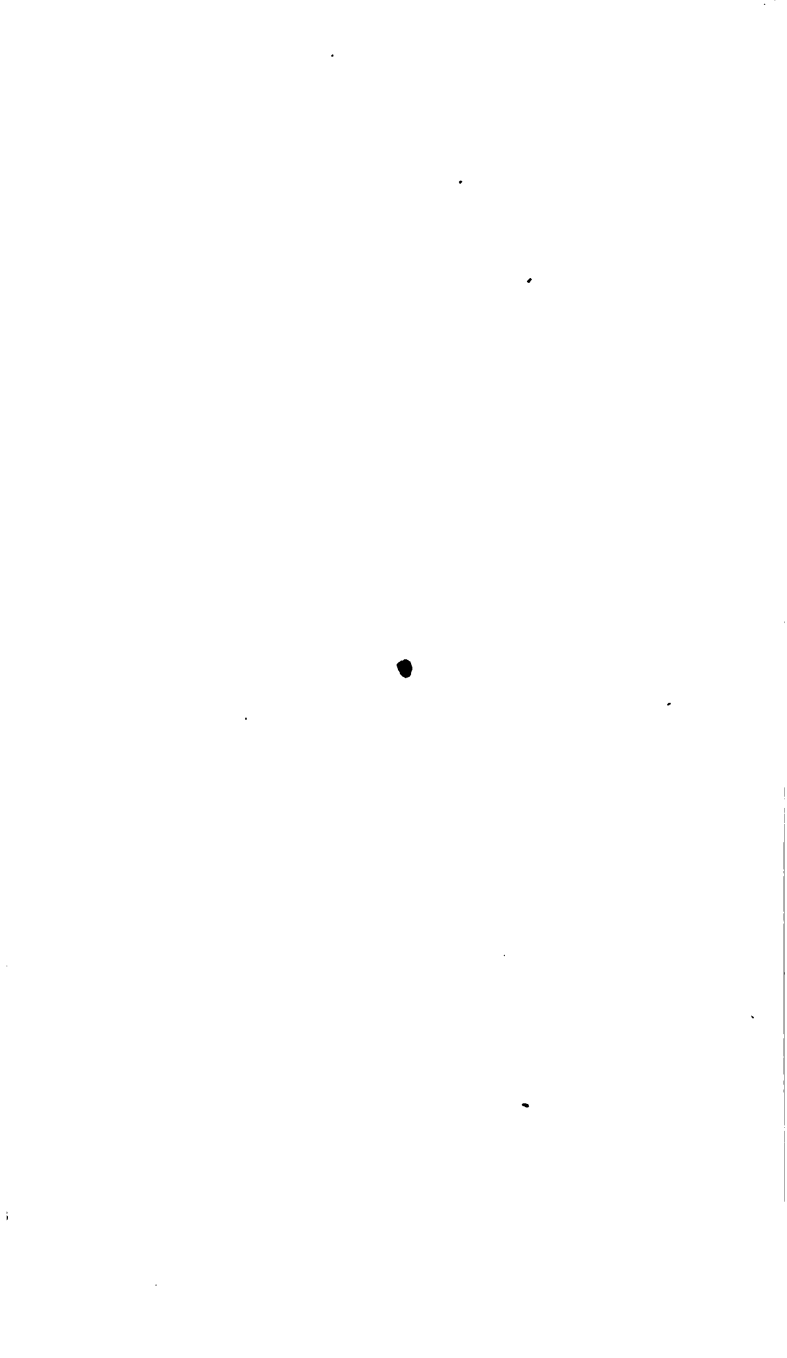
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